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THE LARGEST EVENT

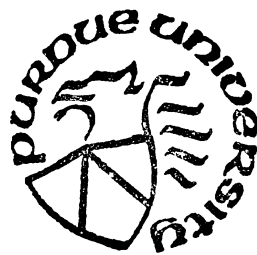
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A Library of Congress
Resource Guide
for the Study
of World War II

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THE LARGEST EVENT





THE LARGEST EVENT

A LIBRARY OF CONGRESS
RESOURCE GUIDE
FOR THE STUDY OF
WORLD WAR II

PETER T. ROHRBACH

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LIBRARY OF CONGRESS Washington 1994

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The maps in this resource guide are from the Geography and Map Division. All other illustrations are from the Prints and Photographs Division.

COVER: U.S. forces disembarking from an American transport during the invasion of Sicily on July 9, 1943. This was the first invasion of the Axis homeland, attacking what Churchill called the "soft underbelly of Europe."

BACK COVER: American troops are seen defending the Kasserine Pass in North Africa in this picture taken on February 20, 1943.

FRONTISPIECE: Jungle warfare in the Pacific. U.S. Marines advance through the mud of Bougainville in the Solomon Islands on November 4, 1943. The U.S. battle plan in the Pacific was one of island hopping as the U.S. forces captured island after island and moved closer to the Japanese homeland. American servicemen had to fight their way through dense jungles, deep mud, and heavy rains.

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FOREWORD

In three buildings on Capitol Hill, the Library of Congress now houses 100 million items; books, manuscripts, maps, prints, photographs, posters, motion pictures, TV tapes, sound recordings, and much else. We invite you to explore this rich array of resources. The knowledge they contain can be used only when someone actively seeks it out.

It is the obligation of the Library of Congress to make known what we have. We do so largely by creating extensive cataloging information, some of it on machine-readable tape, cartridge, or CD-ROM, some on microfiche or cards. We supplement this cataloging and bibliographic data in various ways. Among them is a new series of illustrated guides to our resources for the study of particular subjects. Each guide will describe such resources in all formats—from books to film to prints—throughout the Library.

This guide to the study of World War II, *The Largest Event*, has been written by Peter T. Rohrbach, a freelance Washington writer, who has produced many notable works of history, both in the United States and abroad. In researching an event of such magnitude as World War II,

which British historian John Keegan has called “the largest single event in human history,” Mr. Rohrbach concluded that the Library of Congress is one of the few repositories in the world which can truly offer a full historical record in all formats from a wide range of sources covering those six years of world upheaval.

We embarked on this series of resource guides in 1992 with the publication of *Keys to the Encounter*, a guide to the Age of Discovery, by Prof. Louis De Vorse, Jr. This was followed by *The African-American Mosaic*, a study of Black history and culture, written by members of the Library’s reference staff. Other guides are planned, including one on Native American studies. Each will be accompanied, as is this one, by numerous illustrations and detailed descriptions of relevant resources which can be found in the Library’s collections.

We hope that this guide will prove useful for anyone wishing to rediscover, or unearth new information about, the events of World War II.

James H. Billington
The Librarian of Congress

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to express my appreciation to the many members of the Library's reference staff who provided guidance and assistance in the preparation of this resource guide. Despite their busy schedules, they took the time to lead me to little-known collections and explain the intricacies of the computerized catalog. The staff also reviewed my manuscript and supplied useful information and changes which greatly increased its value as a research tool. It is my sincere hope that this publication will prove to be as helpful to the staff as to the many researchers who seek their assistance. If so, this will provide some recompense for their generous and gracious assistance.

Since I am not able to list the name of every staff member who assisted me during many reading room shifts over a period of months, with due apologies to those I may have overlooked, I am singling out the following persons for special thanks:

AMERICAN FOLKLIFE CENTER Gerald Parsons

ASIAN DIVISION Hisao Matsumoto

EUROPEAN DIVISION Albert Graham and Grant Harris

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MANUSCRIPT DIVISION John Haynes and David Wigdor

MOTION PICTURE, BROADCASTING, AND RECORDED SOUND DIVISION Samuel Brylawski and Cooper Graham

MUSIC DIVISION Jon Newsom and Gillian Anderson

PRINTS AND PHOTOGRAPHS DIVISION George Hobart, Mary Ison, and Bernard Reilly

RARE BOOK AND SPECIAL COLLECTIONS DIVISION Peter Van Wingen

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY DIVISION Leonard Bruno and John Feulner

SERIAL AND GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS DIVISION Frank Carroll and Donald Wisdom

For their many photo research suggestions, I am particularly indebted to the Prints and Photographs and Geography and Map Divisions. Their staff members helped me locate the many illustrations in this resource guide which are not typical of those usually found in World War II publications.

Finally, I acknowledge the support of Dana J. Pratt, Director of Publishing, and his Senior Editor, Iris B. Newsom, who invited me to become a part of this creative and valuable series of resource guides. They were of great assistance in seeing this project through to completion and culling the valuable suggestions of the reference staff, which they incorporated into my manuscript along with their own contributions.

Peter T. Rohrbach

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Peter T. Rohrbach is a freelance writer and editor residing in the Washington, D.C., area. He is the author of over fifteen books published in the United States and abroad. Some of his notable works on history include *Journey to Carth* (Doubleday); *American Issue* (Smithsonian Institution Press); *National Issue*, a sequel to *American Issue*, which is being serialized in *Mekeel's* magazine before the publication of the book; and *Stagecoach East* (Smithsonian Institution Press), a work on nineteenth-century American history, written in collaboration with Oliver W. Holmes.

He has written two booklets for the Library: *FIND* (1985), a history of automation at LC; and *Many Missions* (1986), a description of LC's role and functions.

His many articles have been published in *Time-Life*, *City*, the *Washington Star*, *America*, *Aviation News*, and the *AIA Journal*, as well as

the *Youth Encyclopedia* and the *New Catholic Encyclopedia* (McGraw-Hill).

As an editor, his credits include *The Wright Brothers*; a number of volumes for the Smithsonian's Air and Space Museum series, notably, *The Jet Age*, *Prelude to the Space Age*, and *Messerschmitt* (which was the 1981 winner of the Prix Aéronautique in France); the journal *Spiritual Life*; and *Air and Space* magazine. He has served as an editorial consultant to Harvard University, the Urban Institute, the National Urban Coalition, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and the Department of Transportation.

Mr. Rohrbach's writing credits also include television and motion picture scripts for both commercial and public productions, such as the nationally syndicated television show "Wally's Workshop" and PBS's series on aging. He is a member of the Authors Guild of America and PEN, the international association of writers.

THE LARGEST EVENT

INTRODUCTION

The Largest Event

World War II was an event of gargantuan magnitude in the long and often tumultuous history of the world. Lasting six dark years from 1939 to 1945, it was fought across six of the world's seven continents, on all of its oceans, and it involved millions of people worldwide. Some fifty million people were killed in this truly global conflict, and hundreds of millions were wounded. Armies marched around the world, cities were destroyed, boundaries were changed, and new international alliances were developed.

It was, as British historian John Keegan said, "the largest single event in human history."*

But there were many elements and episodes in this six-year event. There were the nations from Europe, Asia, and America; the towering historical figures, such as Churchill and Hitler and Roosevelt; and the military engagements, names which will endure in history—Stalin-grad, Tobruk, Normandy, and Iwo Jima.

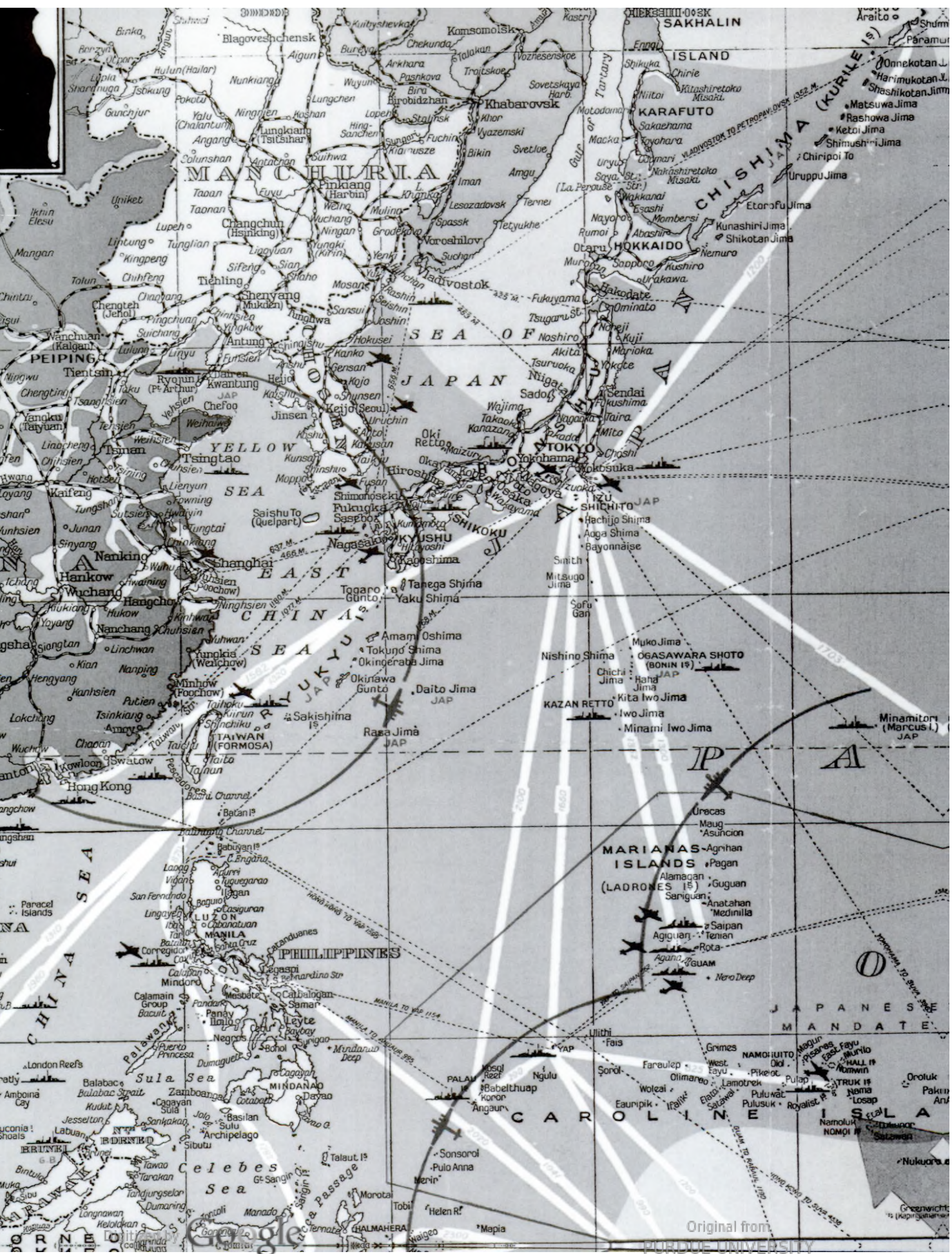
In the light of this event of such magnitude, the Library of Congress is one of the few institutions in the world which can truly capture the breadth, the depth, and the scope of those six years of world upheaval. In the Library's collections of nearly one hundred million items are contained many of the records and the sights and the sounds of World War II.

In the COMPUTER CATALOG CENTER, for instance, there is a subject heading for World War II under which some 52,000 bibliographic titles are listed. In the RARE BOOK AND SPECIAL COLLECTIONS DIVISION are the Third Reich Collection and original editions of such critical works as *Mein Kampf*. The EUROPEAN DIVISION contains books which chronicle the war and its antecedents in multiple languages—English, French, German, and Russian. The ASIAN DIVISION has

OPPOSITE PAGE: *Campagnes d'Europe 1939–1945 (Detail)*. Scale 1 : 5,000,000. Published by Kummerly and Frey, Switzerland. 36 inches by 46 inches. Library of Congress, Geography and Map Division.

*John Keegan, *The Second World War* (New York, 1990), p. 4.





a rich collection of captured Japanese diplomatic and military documents of the period. The SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY DIVISION has abundant documentation about the technology of the war. The SERIAL AND GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS DIVISION has the day-by-day newspapers of the period, American and foreign. The MANUSCRIPT DIVISION has the private papers and thinking of such key military people of the war as Patton, Spaatz, and Halsey. The GEOGRAPHY AND MAP DIVISION follows the progress of the war in U.S. military maps and captured maps.

The Library's collections also contain a wealth of visual and audio material about World War II. The PRINTS AND PHOTOGRAPHS DIVISION offers photographs of the great battles and the great men and the great atrocities of that period, including the splendid photography in the captured forty-seven albums in the Hermann Göring Collection. The MOTION PICTURE, BROADCASTING, AND RECORDED SOUND DIVISION has excellent motion pictures of all aspects of the war, such as a film of Hitler giving an impassioned speech at a Nazi party rally, and American, German, Italian, and Japanese newsreels made during the war. That same division has a large collection of amazing recordings made during the war, such as the French surrender at Compiègne in 1940, the stirring speeches of Churchill that summer during the Battle of Britain, and an actual report from a foxhole on Guam during the island's invasion by American forces in 1944.

In addition to the military campaigns, the Library also offers a view of life on the American

homefront during the war. The large holdings of the MUSIC DIVISION contain the music that was written during the war and the songs that were sung. The newspaper collections offer a day-by-day story, including such interesting material as wartime costs and prices. The film collections contain the motion pictures of the era, some of them patriotic, others escapist. The collections of sound recordings contain radio broadcasts aired during the war, ranging from Roosevelt's Fireside Chats to the current comedy programs. Also, the AMERICAN FOLK-LIFE CENTER'S ARCHIVE OF FOLK CULTURE has an abundance of material about life in America during the war, such as recorded interviews, indigenous songs, and wartime anecdotes.

This resource guide will provide a narrative of World War II and its antecedents. At the end of each section of the narrative there are LC Resource Notes which describe where materials relating to various phases of World War II can be located in the Library's collections. The location and type of research materials will be described as well. Finally, at the end of the narrative there is the Resource Guide to World War II in the Collections of the Library of Congress, an overview of the various divisions and collections in the Library. This guide indicates where a collection is situated and how access can be gained to World War II items, and it also lists the main World War II material in each collection.

If World War II is the "largest single event," then only an institution as large and diverse as the Library of Congress can do justice to that event.

OPPOSITE PAGE: *The West Pacific: May, 1944 (Detail)*. Scale 1:23,063,040. Published by Serial Map Service, Letchworth, Herts, and London. 19 inches by 15 inches. Library of Congress, Geography and Map Division.

THE SEEDS OF CONFLICT 1919 – 1939

MEIN KAMPF

The first volume of Adolf Hitler's *Mein Kampf* (My Struggle) was published in 1925, a work of some four hundred pages; the second volume was published in 1926. The work was little noticed outside Germany at the time, but within the next few years in Germany it would become the guiding document of first the Nazi party and then of the entire German state. Only years later did people around the world begin to realize that *Mein Kampf* was not a compilation of angry slogans; rather, it expressed the fiercely held philosophy of Adolf Hitler, a philosophy which would thrust the world into war a decade and a half later.

It was all there to read in *Mein Kampf*. Hitler decried the provisions of the Versailles Treaty of 1919 at the end of World War I, and he called for its revocation. He saw a new Germany of modern Aryans, a "master race," and he considered Germans "the highest species of humanity on this earth." The obverse of this theme of racial purity and superiority was a virulent anti-Semitism. This new Germany—the Third Reich—would be ruled by the *Führerprinzip*, the leadership principle which was in effect a dictatorship. What Germany needed, he said, was *lebensraum*, living space, which meant the occupation of other countries. Germany, he said quite explicitly, must expand to the east—largely at the expense of Russia. Hitler's *weltanschauung*—his favorite German word, which meant a worldwide view of life—foresaw a new Reich of German mastery over Europe.

Any thoughtful reader of *Mein Kampf* would have to conclude that if Adolf Hitler ever came to power he would be a dangerous man.

But he did come to power. An Austrian, a painter *manqué*, he emigrated to Bavaria and subsequently joined the German army in World War I. Wounded in France, he completed the

war as a corporal, brooding about the German defeat and the harsh terms of the Versailles Treaty. After the war he joined a small nationalistic group in Munich called the German Workers' party, which in 1920 changed its name to the National Socialistic German Workers' party, known forever after as the Nazi party. He rose to the head of the party, and in 1923 he proclaimed an almost comic-opera Nazi revolution in a Munich beer hall—the Beer Hall Putsch—which was quickly suppressed by the police. Jailed for this abortive plot, he spent nine months in prison where he wrote *Mein Kampf*. This was surely one of the least rehabilitative prison sentences in history.

Released from jail, and now more famous because of his book and prison sentence, he began to attract larger and larger crowds with his spellbinding oratory. And he found a ready audience. The Weimar Republic, that patchwork government put together in 1919 after Versailles, was tottering on the brink of economic disaster as unemployment became rampant and inflation soared. The Nazi answer, as articulated by the demagoguery of Adolf Hitler, seemed bright and promising. The party began to attract more members and gain more voters, first in Bavaria and then throughout the rest of Germany. Hitler gathered around him the men who would be the leaders of the new Reich—Hermann Göring, Joseph Goebbels, Heinrich Himmler, and Rudolph Hess—and he organized a quasimilitary organization of Brownshirts, actually a group of uniformed thugs.

In the election of 1932, the Nazis became the strongest party in Germany, receiving about 40 percent of the vote, which was enough to prevent any other party from forming an effective government. (And history should always remember that Hitler came to power through the ballot box and not by a military revolution.) The aging and respected president of the Re-



Adolf Hitler in a 1933 portrait shortly after he became Chancellor of Germany. An Austrian by birth and a corporal in the German army in World War I, he built the small Bavarian Nazi party into the largest electoral unit in the 1932 German elections. After assuming power, he created a Third Reich which he said would last a thousand years.

public, Paul von Hindenburg, reluctantly summoned Hitler to form a government, and on January 30, 1933, Adolf Hitler became Chancellor of Germany.

The threats of *Mein Kampf* were about to become reality.

THE OTHER DICTATORS

When Hitler assumed power in 1933 there were already on the scene two entrenched dictators: Mussolini and Stalin.

Benito Mussolini, unlike Hitler, had used force to gain political power in Italy. A newspaper editor by profession, he had started his own newspaper, *Il Popolo d'Italia*, before World War I. In 1919, using the voice of his newspaper, he founded in Milan the first political group to be called Fascist. (The word *fascist* comes from the Latin *fascis*, the tight bundle of rods carried in ancient Rome as a symbol of authority and strength.) Mussolini's appeal to the crowds he began to attract was like Hitler's demagoguery, as he tried to invoke strong nationalistic feelings and promised to restore Italy to its ancient greatness when Rome was the center of a mighty empire. Within a year he found himself the head of a movement of 2,200 local fascist groups with 320,000 members. In the election of 1921 the fascists won thirty-five seats in the Chamber of Deputies, not enough for control. On October 24, 1922, he electrified a huge rally in Naples by shouting: "Either the government will be given to us or we will seize it by marching on Rome." The crowd roared back: "To Rome, to Rome!"

Three days later, 14,000 fascists converged on the outskirts of Rome, led by Mussolini's armed militia, the Blackshirts. Luigi Facta, the Italian premier, tried to negotiate with Mussolini, and when that failed he urged King Victor Emmanuel III to declare a state of siege. But the



Josef Stalin in 1924 when he had become leader of the Soviet Union. Born Josef Vissarionovich Djughashvili, Stalin was a lifelong revolutionary who consolidated his power through a series of purges in the 1920s and 1930s. He signed a nonaggression pact with Hitler in 1939 which opened the way for World War II, but two years later when Hitler invaded Russia he became a partner with the Allies in defeating Germany.

king, weak and frightened, capitulated and summoned Mussolini to form a government. Il Duce, as he would now be called, had come to power.

Over the next few years Mussolini, like all dictators, began to consolidate his power and eliminate the opposition. However, initially he was very popular with the people—he at least made the trains run on time, as the droll saying went. He overpowered the Chamber of Depu-

ties and made it give him authorization to rule without it for a year. Finally, in a speech on January 3, 1925, he said: "Italy wants peace, work, and calm. I will give them those things with love if possible, with force if necessary." With those words civil liberties and the freedom of the press died in Italy.

Mussolini now had total control in Italy, and he would use that power to lead Italy into World War II.

While Mussolini grabbed power through mob rule and Hitler achieved it by the ballot box, Joseph Stalin gained control of Russia through the intricate and often dangerous workings of the new Communist government in the 1920s. Born as Josef Vissarionovich Djugashvili in 1879 to peasant parents in czarist Georgia, he became a lifelong revolutionary, constantly on the run, often in prison. In 1901 he began to write for a Georgian Marxist journal called *Brdzola* (which is translated as The Struggle, and the irony of this title and that of Hitler's book being almost identical is not lost on historians). In 1913, with Lenin's help, he wrote an article on revolution and signed it with a new name he had just begun to use, Stalin, which derives from a Russian word meaning man of steel, an appropriate name.

Next, Stalin served as editor of *Pravda* (Truth), the Bolshevik party newspaper, and in the October Revolution of 1917 he played a vigorous role in the overthrow of Czar Nicholas II. However, it was not a critical role nor was he the right-hand man of Lenin, as he later depicted himself in the revisionist histories he had rewritten in the 1930s. Nevertheless, when Lenin became the new absolute ruler of the totalitarian Communist regime, Stalin became one of the five members of the newly formed politburo (political bureau), the policymaking body of the party's Central Committee.

Lenin survived the civil war of the 1920s but not the series of strokes which killed him in

1924. Through cunning, infighting and deceit, Stalin manipulated his adversaries and seized power as Lenin's successor, a position he was to occupy for the next twenty-nine years.

Stalin, now firmly in power, embarked on a reign of terror, first in the 1920s and later in the 1930s, liquidating peasants who resisted collectivization, crushing party contemporaries, and purging the Red Army of many of its most distinguished officers. He was a dictator in the traditional mode. In a classic anecdote, Lady Nancy Astor once asked Stalin: "When are you going to stop killing people?" He answered: "When it is no longer necessary."

But in 1933 both of these dictators, Mussolini and Stalin, regarded the new man on the scene with great caution, this spellbinding orator who was whipping the German people into a new frenzy. After all, Germany had made incursions into Italy in World War I and had marched deeply into Russia. Stalin, particularly, was wary of the new German dictator, not only because of World War I but also because of the long Russian memory of Napoleon's invasion in the previous century.

Nevertheless, both these dictators, Mussolini and Stalin, would sign separate pacts with Hitler in the 1930s which would give him the indispensable green light to begin his saga of conquest and war.

PRELUDE TO WAR

As did Mussolini and Stalin before him, Hitler moved to assume complete control of the government, and he acted quickly. On February 27, 1933, less than a month after Hitler became Chancellor, the Reichstag parliament building in Berlin was burned, a deed that was blamed on German Communists, although it had actually been done by the Nazis themselves in order to create a cause célèbre. This Reichstag fire al-

lowed Hitler to announce the fiction of a serious Communist threat to government and order, and he was able to panic the moderates in the Reichstag into voting with the Nazis for a suspension of parliamentary powers. The Enabling Bill which was enacted conferred on Hitler the right to pass binding laws by simply signing whatever document he wished.

Then, in August of 1934, the octogenarian Hindenburg died, and Hitler was able to combine the office of the President with that of Chancellor under the title of Führer, a term he had used nine years earlier in *Mein Kampf*. From that point on, Hitler was in complete control of the Reich, and the Reichstag was stripped of all authority.

Hitler's Third Reich—which he said would last a thousand years—was repressive. He destroyed the trade union movement in Germany; he eliminated freedom of the press; and he outlawed all other parties but the Nazis. His secret police, the Gestapo, mercilessly hunted down his enemies, and there was a network of spies and informants throughout Germany. The Nazi-controlled press and radio—under the direction of propaganda minister Joseph Goebbels—flooded Germany with stories and programs about what Hitler called “the New Order.” Sinisterly, a series of concentration camps was quietly erected to house dissidents and enemies of the state and, later, Jews in ever-growing numbers.

Nevertheless, the mood of the general populace in those early years of the Third Reich was upbeat and optimistic, and even triumphant. In the three years from 1933 to 1936 Hitler effectively restored Germany to prosperity, in marked contrast to the bleak days of the Weimar Republic. In the first year of his rule the number of unemployed declined by more than half, many of the three million new workers finding jobs in the construction of the autobahn, the

splendid new road system which was an early visible symbol of the Nazi economic miracle. Hitler was regarded as a savior, a man who had restored discipline and pride in Germany. To inflame all this, the Third Reich was steeped in pageantry and Teutonic imagery; there were massive rallies, Wagnerian music, and gigantic flags displaying the swastika, the symbol of the Nazi party. All of this was fueled by the strident oratory of Adolf Hitler which had an almost hypnotic effect on the German people.

More ominously, Hitler began to rebuild the military, which became another point of pride for the German people. The Versailles Treaty had severely limited the size of the German military, but even during the Weimar Republic of the 1920s the German High Command was quietly circumventing those limitations. But Hitler went all out in his attempt to restore Germany's military might. In 1935 he reintroduced military conscription, and by 1936 he had thirty-six army divisions, even though many of them were still understaffed. He announced the creation of a *Luftwaffe*, an air force, under the direction of Hermann Göring, which was another breach of the Versailles Treaty. New armament factories were built, turning out aircraft and tanks and artillery pieces in a steady stream. German shipyards began building new naval vessels, including U-boat submarines, which had proved so devastating in World War I. While Europe and the world looked on without real protest, Hitler was building a mighty military machine.

At the same time another one of the twentieth-century dictators made a preemptory military move which was another ominous foretaste of the coming world disaster. On October 3, 1935, Italian forces, striking south from Eritrea, moved across the border into Ethiopia, Africa's major independent country. This was one of Mussolini's actions to restore the grandeur of It-

ally which, he claimed, had received only "crumbs from the sumptuous colonial booty of others" after World War I. The Italian forces, with great superiority in planes and tanks, moved steadily through Ethiopia and in May of 1936 they took Addis Ababa, the capital.

A few weeks later Haile Selassie, the Ethiopian Emperor, spoke before the now inept League of Nations in Geneva and made an impassioned appeal for assistance. None was forthcoming; and for all practical purposes the League, which was created after World War I, was dead. But Selassie's words to the League that June of 1936 would linger prophetically over the world for the next decade—"It is us today. It will be you tomorrow."

Less than a month after Selassie's speech to the League another European event occurred which was yet one more step in the prelude to world war: General Francisco Franco landed in Spanish Morocco with his rebel troops in a revolution against the left-wing government of the five-year-old Republic of Spain. The ensuing Spanish Civil War was fought within continental Spain, but it has since been regarded by historians as a dress rehearsal for the coming international conflict, not only because of the new weaponry and tactics which were tested but also because of the conflicting ideologies which were evidenced there. Franco's forces, the rebels, were regarded as Fascists, and the forces of the Republic, the loyalists, were regarded as Communists.

Accordingly, external nations supported one side or another in the Spanish Civil War. Both Hitler and Mussolini sent troops, and the Germans developed the famed Condor Legion, an air and ground force, which was to test with alarming effectiveness the new German military might, such as the *stuka* aircraft and the panzer divisions with the German 88mm gun which was to earn a reputation as perhaps the most

effective field weapon of World War II. These Germans and Italians supported Franco, while Russia sent planes and guns and tanks to the loyalist side. France also supported the loyalists by sending planes, while the United States and Britain contributed only relief food and clothing in the bloody Civil War. In addition, the loyalists attracted a large group of international volunteers to fight in Spain, people from Europe, Canada, and America who were called the International Brigades. One of these was the Abraham Lincoln Brigade, composed of 3,000 Americans, and years later into the 1950s these volunteers were to bear the taint of Communism because of their participation in the Lincoln Brigade.

By the time Franco's forces entered Madrid in March of 1939, ensuring Franco's totalitarian regime, the Spanish Civil War was effectively over, but 600,000 people had been killed in the conflict. In June of that year the German Condor Legion returned home to a triumphal parade in Berlin, exhibiting its now tested and proven military weaponry. However, by that time Hitler had already embarked upon his program of painless conquest, but he would soon need the lethal force of that German military might.

Hitler's first aggressive move out of the restraints imposed by the Versailles Treaty occurred in 1936 in what was one of the Führer's boldest gambles to date. On March 7 of that year he ordered three battalions of German troops to cross the Rhine and occupy the demilitarized left bank. It was a relatively small force; nevertheless, they were in violation of Versailles. Hitler had given orders to withdraw if his troops were opposed, and indeed the larger French army could easily have entered the area and routed the German troops. However, the French did nothing, apart from making a futile plea to the League of Nations, and

even the English seemed oddly complacent about this stark aggressive military move by the Germans. Indeed, in London, the *Times* in its leading editorial about the event headed the story "A Chance to Rebuild."

The Versailles Treaty had created a 9,450-square-mile territory west of the Rhine which was to be a demilitarized buffer zone between France and Germany. Hitler had now violated the zone and militarized it, and the consequences of that one gambit were enormous. For one, it marked the effective end of the Versailles Treaty, something which the German populace applauded loudly. For another, it demonstrated to Hitler and the world that at this early stage the western powers had no strong stomach for confronting the increasingly strident German leader. Most importantly, the occupation of the Rhineland in 1936 was one of those great pivotal moments in history, a lost opportunity which led to great tragedies which perhaps could have been averted. After the war, during the Nuremberg Trial, German General Alfred Jodl said of the Rhineland incursion, "Considering the situation we were in, the French covering army could have blown us to pieces." Had that happened Hitler would have been dealt a devastating blow and he would have lost the already tenuous support he had from the German High Command for any future incursions. But all of that did not happen in 1936, and Hitler was free to move on to his next objectives for German domination of Europe.

Hitler's only concern of course was the Reich, the German state, but he did see the value of having some allies. In 1936 he signed a pact with Mussolini, and thus was born the Rome-Berlin Axis—a term coined by Mussolini himself. In that same year Hitler signed with Japan the Anti-Comintern Pact which was directed against the Soviet Union; and in 1937 Mussolini signed that same Pact, so that now there were three Axis Powers. Hitler was never to gain any

significant military assistance from his two new allies. In fact, he had to divert troops from the Russian front to send them to North Africa to help bail out the Italian troops which were being beaten by the British. And, despite Hitler's entreaties, the Japanese never did attack Russia when Hitler wanted to force it into fighting on two fronts; rather, Japan attacked the United States, drawing Hitler into that conflict and creating another enemy for him at a time when he did not need one. The principal and critical benefit Hitler received from the Axis was Mussolini's neutrality at a time when he needed it. Hitler had feared that Italy might go to the aid of Austria, its neighbor to the north, particularly since so many ethnic Austrians lived in northern Italy, but Mussolini gave his blessing to all of Hitler's plans for conquest.

And as leaders of the world at that time should have known, the conquest of Austria was an objective recorded on the first page of *Mein Kampf*.

SEASON OF APPEASEMENT

Hitler called it Anschluss—the political union of Austria with Germany—and within a few months of his coming to power in 1933 he began to send secret agents into Austria where there soon developed a large and often violent Nazi party. Over the next five years he adopted a policy of infiltration, intimidation, and threats of invasion of Austria which shared Germany's southeast border. By 1938 Hitler was convinced that he had strong popular support in Austria and in February of that year he imperiously summoned the Austrian Chancellor, Kurt von Schuschnigg, to a meeting at his Bavarian mountain retreat at Berchtesgaden and he subjected him to a two-hour tongue lashing about the situation in Austria. Thoroughly browbeaten, the Austrian Chancellor agreed to Hit-

ler's demands, which included a guarantee of the legalization of the Austrian Nazi party, with Nazis appointed to key cabinet posts.

But when Schuschnigg returned to Austria he regained his courage and rejected Hitler's demands, calling instead for a national plebiscite to determine the composition of the Austrian government and its policies. The Austrian Nazis then tried to create as much turmoil as they could, calling for Hitler to invade and help them, until finally on March 11 Schuschnigg backed down and cancelled the plebiscite. However, it was too late: the general unrest in Austria gave Hitler the flimsy excuse he needed—he would invade Austria to restore civil order.

On March 12, 1938, German troops crossed into Austria where they were largely unopposed; indeed, in most instances they were welcomed with flowers and Nazi flags. It was the easiest of conquests. Two days later Hitler himself made a triumphal entry into Vienna where he had spent his unhappy and aimless youth. Austria was now part of the German Reich and it soon began to experience those grim features of Nazi rule: the arrest of Socialists and Communists, the harassment of the Jews, and even the imprisonment of Schuschnigg in a concentration camp.

Both England and France protested this quick and total conquest of a European nation, but Hitler ignored them, and the deed was done.

Next on Hitler's agenda of conquest was Czechoslovakia, a country which territorially reached into the Reich and which included the Sudetenland, a large border area inhabited mostly by three and a half million people of German origin who had been transferred to Czechoslovakia in 1918. The Sudetenland was Hitler's initial focus of interest, and he had been working it just as he had Austria. There were infiltration and strong appeals to the Sudeten Germans in Czechoslovakia to assert their German heritage and join the Reich, and Joseph

Goebbels's propaganda machine in Berlin began to manufacture and crank out stories of Czech intolerance and brutality to the German minority. Hitler moved his troops to the Czech border, and a crisis of war suddenly developed that summer of 1938.

Enter Neville Chamberlain, the British Prime Minister, who had succeeded Stanley Baldwin in May of 1937.

Chamberlain, a British gentleman, was a statesman of the old school who felt that Hitler could be dealt with like any other European statesman of history; quite simply, he could be reasoned with. In his mind Hitler, like any other head of government, was subject to logic and therefore fundamentally "appeasable." Chamberlain also had two other guiding thoughts at that moment of history. He desperately wanted to avoid war at any cost, because, like other Britons, he remembered the deadly carnage of the trench warfare of World War I when England lost "the flower of its manhood." Also, he really did not care if Germany occupied the Sudetenland. However, Chamberlain's sentiments were not shared by all members of his Tory party, notably Anthony Eden and Winston Churchill, who regarded appeasement as the road to ruination.

Chamberlain, in an effort to preserve the peace, flew to Munich in September of 1938 for a meeting with Hitler, Mussolini, and the French Prime Minister, Edouard Daladier; amazingly, the Czech President Eduard Benes was not permitted to attend. After multiple meetings and agonizing discussions, Hitler finally received at Munich everything he wanted at the moment: the Sudetenland was surrendered completely to Germany, and German troops would begin their occupation on October 1.

The British Prime Minister flew back to London where he was met by cheering crowds as he spoke of "victory at Munich," and "peace for

our time." Churchill grumbled, while Chamberlain proudly waved a document called the Anglo-German Peace Declaration which he and Hitler had signed. The document proved worthless, and the word Munich became a synonym for spineless.

Meanwhile, the disgusted President Benes resigned and went into exile in England, and he was succeeded by the aging Emil Hacha who desperately tried to keep his remaining country together in the face of the continuing machinations of the Nazis within. At Munich, Hitler had announced that the Sudetenland was "the last territorial claim I have to make in Europe," a statement of arrant deceit, because immediately after his troops had marched into the Sudetenland he continued to work secretly to incorporate the rest of Czechoslovakia into the Reich.

In March of 1939 Hitler ordered the pro-German Separatist party in the Slovakian half of what remained of the country to proclaim their secession and request the Führer's protection, thereby providing him the pretext he needed for aggression. President Hacha rushed to Berlin to seek an audience with Hitler and to protest, and he was kept waiting until 1:00 A.M. when Hitler coldly informed him that he intended to impose a German protectorate on all of Czechoslovakia and if he did not sign in agreement by 5:00 A.M. German bombers would strike Prague that morning. Hacha, aged and browbeaten, signed a formal request for a German protectorate over the whole of Czechoslovakia.

Later that day Hitler announced publicly that "Czechoslovakia had ceased to exist," and the next day—March 15, 1939—German troops marched into Prague where they formed an honor guard for Hitler who followed, making a triumphal entry into another subjugated nation, similar to his entry into Vienna a year earlier.

Again, neither England, nor France, nor the Soviet Union took any action, and Hitler could simply count his spoils. Thus, in the space of twelve months Hitler had conquered two sovereign nations without any military action whatsoever, surely one of the most astonishing and easiest major conquests in history. But the inertia of the Western democracies during this season of appeasement would have ramifications for the next half century, as world leaders would be both frightened and guided by the dangers of appeasement as they were demonstrated in Europe in the 1930s.

However, the rape of Czechoslovakia finally caused the end of appeasement of the German dictator. The enraged Chamberlain felt he had been betrayed by Hitler, as indeed he had, and on March 17 he publicly announced that if there were further attacks on sovereign states England would resist "to the utmost of its power," a menacing warning. Hitler was unperturbed by this threat, and he now turned his attention to Poland which was next on his agenda. Poland possessed the largest slice of formerly German territory which had been taken by the Versailles Treaty, specifically the Polish Corridor, which divided East Prussia and the German-speaking Free City of Danzig from the mainland of the Reich. Chamberlain, now aroused, was aware of Hitler's perfidy and his designs on Poland, and on March 31 he took the totally uncharacteristic step of offering the Poles a unilateral British guarantee of Poland's security. Poland accepted, and soon France joined in the guarantee.

Then, as tensions escalated, two weeks later on April 13 England and France issued similar guarantees to Romania and Greece, after Mussolini, following Hitler's example of easy conquest, marched into Albania and annexed the country.

Chamberlain's unilateral guarantee to Poland

was an extremely bold step for the previously ultracautious Prime Minister because it, in effect, placed the decision for war or peace squarely in Hitler's hands. The cards were on the table, and if Hitler picked up the war card there would be war—it was as simple as that.

There was one player in the game, however, whose intentions were not known during that tense time, and throughout the spring and summer of 1939 both England and Germany tried to woo the Russian dictator Josef Stalin, who now suddenly became a pivotal figure in the growing crisis. England and France attempted to draw Russia into a mutual agreement which would give protective guarantees to Poland, but the sticking point here was Poland's reluctance to enter into any deal with Russia, its traditional enemy. Hitler, on the other hand, was desperate for some type of nonaggression agreement with Russia before he moved on Poland, because he feared if he moved into Poland the Russians might come across the border to confront him, with the result that he might be facing the Russians on one side and the British and French behind him on the other side—something which, ironically, was to happen six years later, and something which was *not* foreseen in *Mein Kampf*.

While the English envoys dallied, Hitler sent his Foreign Minister Joachim von Ribbentrop to Moscow to meet with the Russian Foreign Minister Vyacheslav Molotov and make an offer of a slice of eastern Poland after the German invasion. The crafty Josef Stalin, whose only interest at the moment was the safety of Mother Russia, considered the alternatives: England was far away, but Hitler and his army were massed on the Polish border, prepared to come crushing through and perhaps cross all the way into Russia. For Stalin, a treaty with Germany seemed the best card to play. Accordingly, on August 22 the two Foreign Ministers, Ribbentrop and Mo-

lotov, signed a mutual nonaggression pact in Moscow, which for all practical purposes gave Hitler the go-ahead to invade Poland and ignite a war among the Western powers. (At that point Stalin was not particularly concerned about a war among the Western powers.) What were not announced in August after the German-Russian pact were the secret protocols which eventually allowed Russia to move in and annex eastern Poland up to the line of the Vistula and the Baltic states of Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia.

The Russian-German pact doomed Poland, and made war inevitable.

Hitler, though, had one more bit of deceit he wanted to work out before he invaded Poland. On the evening of August 31, Berlin radio announced that Polish troops had attacked a German installation near the Silesian border town of Gleiwitz and had been repulsed and killed. In fact, it was an elaborate ruse set up by the German SS in which hapless German prisoners from a concentration camp had been dressed in Polish uniforms and had then been shot in order to simulate a Polish incursion. Using this as a pretext, Hitler ordered the attack, and at 4:45 in the morning of September 1, 1939, German tanks crossed the Polish border. Using the pretext of the fictitious Polish attack, Hitler never did declare war on Poland; rather he justified the coming brutal invasion as a defensive action.

Stunned, and still reacting rather slowly, the Western democracies tarried for a day, and then on September 3 both Britain and France delivered ultimatums which demanded the withdrawal of German troops from Poland. The ultimatums expired without a response from Germany, and a state of war existed.

The long prelude to the war was over, and the tragic six years of conflict were about to begin.

■ LC RESOURCE NOTES

Valuable research and resource material about those years leading up to the onset of World War II can be found in the various collections of the Library of Congress.

The RARE BOOK AND SPECIAL COLLECTIONS DIVISION contains part of the Third Reich Collection, which offers books, albums, and printed material about the early days of the Nazi party. A set of *Die Alte Garde Spricht* contains a series of biographical sketches of Nazi party members. The division has an original edition of *Mein Kampf*, plus a braille edition, as well as the first full and unedited American edition translated in 1939 by Alan Cranston (later to be a U.S. Senator from California).

The EUROPEAN DIVISION has specific books about the period in English, French, German, and Russian, including such works as *The Nazi Party: A Social Profile of Members* (London, 1983).

The COMPUTER CATALOG CENTER offers a broad range of bibliographic material about Europe in the 1930s: biographical material can be found under the particular name heading, such as Hitler or Mussolini; and the various national histories under the heading of the specific country, such as France or Germany.

The GEOGRAPHY AND MAP DIVISION has maps of Europe during the 1930s, listed by country and date, which show the changing face of Europe as war approached. Maps of the early 1930s show the national boundaries as they had been determined by the Versailles Treaty, while the maps of 1938 and 1939 show the growing size of the Reich, almost doubling it in territory as Hitler embarked on his program of conquest.

The prelude to war can be followed day by day during the period in the SERIAL AND GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS DIVISION which has complete files of such newspapers as the *Völkischer Beobachter Berlin*, the official paper of the Nazi party, and the

London *Times*. The evolving mood in England can be followed through the years in the pages of the *Times*, from an almost amused indifference toward Hitler in 1933 to outright fear of the dictator in 1939.

The MANUSCRIPT DIVISION's papers of William Dodd (U.S. ambassador to Germany, 1933–1937) and his daughter, Martha Dodd, describe the social life of Berlin at the dawn of the Nazi rule and the National Socialist state. The papers also document the effort of both Dodds, upon their return to the United States, to warn Americans of the Nazi menace.

The PRINTS AND PHOTOGRAPHS DIVISION contains another part of the Third Reich Collection, some seventy photo albums. The albums of the Hermann Göring Collection chronicle the rise and flowering of the Nazi party. There are also individual files of key figures, such as Hitler and Stalin. The photographs in these collections of the adoring crowds wildly cheering Hitler demonstrate quite starkly the Führer's popularity in Germany during the 1930s, despite the persecution of the Jews and other less fortunate segments of German society.

The MOTION PICTURE, BROADCASTING, AND RECORDED SOUND DIVISION has a wealth of audio and visual material about this period. There are voice recordings of all the major German leaders, including a November 9, 1939, recording of a speech by Hitler at Munich in which all the full flavor of the stridency and the demagoguery of the Führer's voice can be heard. The captured German films offer a filmic history of Germany in the 1930s with feature films, propaganda films, and newsreels. Of particular interest is the classic 1935 propaganda film *Triumph Des Willens* (Triumph of the Will) directed by Leni Riefenstahl which shows Hitler speaking at a party rally in 1924 and

which delineates the Nazi principles of strength and domination. It is available in both German and an English subtitle version.

The MUSIC DIVISION has an extensive collection of the music of the 1930s, both popular and militaristic. Of particular interest in this collection is "Deutschland über Alles," the official anthem of the Reich, and the "Horst Wessel Lied" which was

the official song of the Nazi party. Horst Wessel was a young Nazi party member, later accused of being a pimp and consort of prostitutes, who was killed in a street fight with Communists in 1930. The skillful propagandist Joseph Goebbels manipulated the legend and made Wessel the great early martyr of the Nazi party, commemorating him in stirring song.

THE CONFLAGRATION ERUPTS 1939 – 1941

BLITZKRIEG

It was called blitzkrieg—lightning war—and the Germans unveiled it in Poland that September of 1939. It consisted of *stuka* dive bomber attacks, fast tank movements, and mobile infantry deployments, all of which were backed up by heavy bomber attacks. The keys to this whole new tactic were mobility and coordination of a multforce attack. It was a strategy the Germans developed to avoid the slow, turgid trench warfare of World War I. It can be reasonably said that this new air-ground, multforce concept revolutionized modern warfare.

In 1939, the German blitzkrieg overwhelmed Poland.

By the end of the first day of the Polish campaign the Polish air force had been largely destroyed; most of it was caught on the ground before it could take off, and thus the Germans had almost immediate air supremacy. Also, German high-level bombers attacked Warsaw, reducing most of the Polish rear to shambles. On the ground, the German military machine streamed across the Polish border—the tanks, the armored cars, and the armored infantry and artillery of the mechanized panzer divisions. All of these were supported by waves of Junkers-87 dive bombers, the deadly *stukas*.

The mobile German forces drove across the open country, splitting the Polish armies into fragments, which nevertheless fought fiercely against this new type of warfare. A crack Pomorske Cavalry Brigade attempted to break out of a German encirclement by attacking German tanks. The Poles, riding magnificent mounts, sabers flashing, charged the tanks, only to be decimated. Nevertheless, by the end of the short Polish campaign the German Wehrmacht suffered 13,981 fatalities.

On September 5 Hitler visited the Polish battlefield, inspecting the destruction of the Polish defenses. It was the third visit he had made

in the last eighteen months to a newly conquered country. Warsaw was encircled by September 17, and on that same day Russian troops moved across the eastern Polish border to take their slice of Poland in accordance with the German-Russian Pact of the preceding month. Warsaw finally capitulated on September 27, and by October 6 all Polish resistance had ended. Hitler installed Hans Frank, who would be the ruler of Poland for the next four years and who said upon taking office: "The Poles will be the slaves of the Greater German World Reich."

However, some one hundred thousand Poles escaped from the scissors of Germans from the west and Russians from the east, fleeing across friendly borders until many of them reached France and then later Britain where they would form the Polish armed forces in exile, a force that would return to fight gallantly against the Germans in the west on another day.

Hitler then turned his attention to the west and an attack against the archenemy, France. The initial plan was to launch a blitzkrieg against France that autumn of 1939 by moving quickly through the lowlands and then assaulting France from the north; but for once Hitler was not able to keep his timetable. It took time to move the bulk of the German army to the Western front and work out the precise details of the attack, and then the severest European winter in years began. Hitler decided to postpone his Western invasion until spring and the onset of good weather again.

On November 30 Stalin moved again, attacking his tiny neighbor Finland, as part of his program to extend his sphere of influence following his gains from his treaty with Hitler. It promised to be a short campaign, like the Polish one, because the mighty Russian army would apparently easily crush the small Finnish forces;

German troops on the attack in northern France in May of 1940. This German blitzkrieg of the spring of 1940 routed the Anglo-French armies in just six weeks, culminating in the surrender of France on June 22.



the Russians had figured it would be over in two weeks. But Stalin had not figured on two things—the fierce winter and the resoluteness of the Finns. As the world looked on with amazement and then admiration, the small Finnish army, often skiing brilliantly over the snow-cruised terrain, was able to outmaneuver the Russian army, often annihilating whole units. The Russo-Finnish war dragged on for months, but by early March of 1940 it was all over, as the overwhelming weight of the Russian forces finally crushed the Finns. The Finnish peace delegation in Moscow was forced to turn over to Russia large territories in eastern Finland.

For the Allies that autumn of 1939 was seen as a blessing, because Hitler's failure to press on to the attack gave them time to build their strength. The British sent four divisions of the British Expeditionary Force across the Channel to join the French, and they set up a naval blockade to strangle Germany economically as had been done in World War I. The French themselves mobilized five million men and moved them to battle stations, and they reinforced the jewel of their defense, the Maginot Line.

The Maginot Line—named after André Maginot, who was the French Minister of War when construction on the Line started in 1930—was a masterpiece of engineering. Built at a cost of over two hundred million dollars and seven years of labor, it was an eighty-seven-mile string of forts facing Germany. It consisted of deep rows of concrete-protected gun emplacements armed with antitank weapons and underground fortresses buried as much as 100 feet beneath the surface of the earth. The Maginot Line was considered invincible. The only problem was that Hitler did not intend to attack the Maginot Line; he was going around the other way, through the lowlands.

During that fall of 1939 and winter of 1940

there was naval action on the high seas as the Germans began their devastating U-boat submarine attacks on British shipping, but there was practically no action on the ground in Europe. A wariness, even a cautious optimism, pervaded Europe in the face of this absence of military activity. The French called this period "*drôle de guerre*"; in Germany it was called "*sitzkrieg*"; and in the American press it was called the "phony war."

But Hitler was waiting, patiently.

THE BATTLE IN THE WEST

When spring came to Europe in 1940 and the long cruel winter was over, Hitler began to make ready for his assault against France, but one critical matter captured his attention first: the Scandinavian question. Germany was landlocked except for a few ports on its northern border on the North Sea and the Baltic, and Hitler remembered the English blockade of World War I which had crippled Germany economically. What he feared in 1940 was that the English would occupy Norway, thus gaining control of the North Sea and access to the Baltic. Hitler was prescient, because that was precisely what the British were planning. When war broke out the previous September Neville Chamberlain felt the need to add some militarily oriented people to his cabinet, and so with great reluctance he appointed his critic Winston Churchill to be First Lord of the Admiralty. Churchill then began drafting plans for a preemptive invasion of neutral Norway. But in this first confrontation between Hitler and Churchill the Führer outfoxed him and beat him to the punch.

On April 7, 1940, German ships set out for an invasion of Denmark and Norway, and they were aided by fog and storms which concealed their movements. On April 9 they hit both

nations. Denmark, with no suspicions that Germany entertained hostile intentions toward her, was unarmed and totally unprepared and surrendered in a matter of hours after the Germans threatened an aerial bombardment of Copenhagen. The Norwegians, however, put up a fight, and at Oslo their ancient guns even managed to sink the German cruiser *Blücher*, which allowed the royal family to escape to England. But then the Germans off-loaded troops from their ships, the *Luftwaffe* landed other forces, and Oslo surrendered. Only in the north of Norway did the fight continue. There the Norwegians fought fiercely, aided by landings of British and French troops, and the Germans suffered serious defeats in two battles at Narvik. German General Eduard Dietl, however, began to consolidate his position in the north, and by the end of the May the Allied forces withdrew, summoned home to aid in greater disasters in France, and all of Norway then fell under German control.

Sweden was never attacked by the Germans during World War II and it remained a bastion of neutrality, but Denmark and Norway remained occupied until the end of the war, suffering the many atrocities of the Nazi philosophy. From the outset of the German occupation there was an active resistance in Norway to the occupying conquerors, while in Denmark there was an initial complaisance toward the German regime which eventually soured and turned into a spirited resistance movement among the Danes.

There was one other casualty in Hitler's Scandinavian campaign in the spring of 1940: Neville Chamberlain. By early May it became evident that the Allies had been outmaneuvered in Scandinavia, and the blame fell on Chamberlain—although it was really Winston Churchill who had been outfoxed. This dismal defeat, plus the long disgraceful years of appeasement, began to turn even the members of Chamber-

lain's own party against him, and the clamor rose for him to resign. On May 7, Leopold Amery, a Tory member of parliament, rose in that house and addressed to Chamberlain the words of Oliver Cromwell: "Depart, I say, and let us have done with you. In the name of God, go!" Chamberlain resigned, and on May 10 Winston Churchill was called upon to form a new government which would prosecute the war.

On May 10, 1940, a fateful day in European history, Churchill became the wartime Prime Minister of Britain, and Hitler launched his long-feared blitzkrieg attack on the Western front.

Winston Churchill was sixty-five years old when he became Britain's Prime Minister and he already had a distinguished career as a soldier, author, and politician. He was first elected to the House of Commons in 1901, and during World War I he served as the First Lord of the Admiralty and Minister of Munitions, and he was an early advocate of the new air service. During the 1920s he was Chancellor of the Exchequer, but he lost that office when the Conservatives were voted out of power. Throughout the 1930s Churchill kept his seat in Parliament, but he was in eclipse, a man on the outside, frequently branded a warmonger because of his strong denunciations of Nazi Germany. But in 1940 Britain turned to him, and upon taking office he said: "I have nothing to offer but blood, toil, tears, and sweat."

At dawn on May 10 Hitler unleashed his blitzkrieg as German aircraft swept in over Allied bases in the north of France, while a wave of German tanks and infantry broke over the borders of Holland, Belgium, and Luxembourg. These forces were supported by the *stuka* dive bombers and parachutists, and gliders ferrying more troops. The Dutch were particularly unprepared for this assault. They had been non-participants in World War I, and in fact had not engaged in a war since 1830. Their army was



Hitler eating with German troops in a field kitchen in southern Belgium at his advance headquarters in June of 1940. By this time the Führer had assumed complete control of the German military and he made all the major tactical decisions in his brilliant western campaign of 1940.

only ten divisions strong, and they had only 125 aircraft, half of which were destroyed on the ground that first day. Nevertheless, the dogged Dutch held on for five days, during which Hitler personally ordered a massive bombing attack on the city of Rotterdam, creating extensive destruction and sending shock waves through to the French people to the south. Dutch Queen Wilhelmina and the government fled The

Hague for London, and the Dutch forces ordered a cease fire.

Farther south, the Germans were enjoying equal success in Belgium, particularly by the use of paratroopers, aided by the *stukas* and the panzers of German Army Group B. At this point the Allied units in northern France moved north in an advance to form a front with the Belgian army along the Dyle and Meuse rivers. Checkmate! This was the trap which Hitler had planned so carefully.

By this time Hitler was in complete control of the German military, and in conjunction with his General Staff he had worked out an ingenious plan for the assault on Western Europe. There were misgivings among his staff about the plan, but Hitler was in absolute charge, and in this instance the former World War I corporal was to prove himself a military genius. The plan was so simple that it is amazing it fooled the Allies. The German attack into the lowlands was not diversionary, but it was not the main attack that May. Hitler's plan was to draw the Allies up to meet him in the lowlands while he launched the major attack farther to the south through the Ardennes forests—those wooded ravines which the French considered utterly impenetrable. Then Hitler would catch the Allies in a pincer movement between two major German forces. That is precisely what happened. German Army Group A with forty-five divisions which included most of Germany's armor and motorized infantry smashed through the Ardennes and made directly for the Channel to close the trap.

The whole Allied force began to collapse as the trap closed. The panzers of Army Group A raced on to the coast at terrifying speed, finally joining up with Army Group B to drive the cornered Allies into a pocket around Lille by May 24. Four days later Belgium surrendered. In the meantime a desperate Churchill had made a fast flight to Paris to bolster the spirits of the flag-

ging French, but he smelled defeat in the air. The French had asked for more air support from Britain, but Churchill's military advisors counseled him to reserve the Royal Air Force for the coming inevitable defense of their island, a move which probably saved Britain in 1940.

General Lord Gort, the commander of the British Expeditionary Force, was one of the first Allied senior officers to realize that they had been trapped, and he smartly moved the BEF eastward to the Channel port of Dunkirk where one of the great evacuations of history was about to take place. It was there that Hitler made one of his two great blunders of World War II: the German troops were in hot pursuit of Gort, but on May 24 Hitler himself ordered the German panzers to halt when they were actually only twelve miles from Dunkirk and the BEF. Historical theories abound as to the reason for this strange decision which ultimately allowed the British to escape. On the one hand there is the theory that Hitler wanted to show the English leniency after his mighty victory and allow the army to leave with some dignity so that a quick peace could be arranged. But on the other hand there were military logistical reasons for the decision: General von Rundstedt, who commanded Army Group A and who would figure largely in the Battle of the Bulge later in the war, had counseled Hitler that the panzers had advanced so quickly that they were now exhausted and should pull up and wait until the slower-moving infantry had caught up and aligned behind them; and Göring had assured the Führer that his *Luftwaffe* would maintain control of the Channel and prevent any breakout, one of many fatal miscalculations Göring would make during the war. At any rate, Hitler lost his opportunity to smash the BEF on the beach at Dunkirk, and the evacuation began.

It was not a thing of beauty, but it worked. The British used the forty-one destroyers and

escorts which were available at the moment, but the call went out in England for all civilian craft to assist in this perilous endeavor of getting the BEF off the continent, and a strange fleet developed of fishing trawlers, motor launches, fireboats, sloops, schooners, and even Thames River barges. From May 26 to June 4, under constant fire all the time from German artillery on the shore and *stuka* bombers from above, this melange of seacraft was able to evacuate 337,000 Allied soldiers; this number included almost the whole BEF, minus most of their heavy equipment, plus some 110,000 French soldiers. It was a remarkable accomplishment, and when the beaten BEF disembarked in England it was greeted by cheering crowds, hardly the historical reception for a defeated army.

The French, now alone, prepared for their final defense against the German onslaught, and French General Maxime Weygand took his stand behind the line of the Somme and Aisne rivers, stretching southwestward some 225 miles from the Channel to Longuyon. General Fedor von Bock's Army Group B attacked, and the first breach of the Somme was made by Erwin Rommel, commander of the 7th Panzer Division and one of the war's most competent and colorful figures. But, again, the German offensive was a two-pronged one, and the larger force of Army Group A under General von Rundstedt attacked on a wide front farther east. The French fought tenaciously for a while, but then the entire French line began to crumble and a major German breakthrough occurred. Soon a giant rout was in progress and whole armies and mobs of civilians began fleeing to the south.

In the meantime, Mussolini, who still had not entered the war, was watching and waiting, and he finally decided that France was beaten. On June 10 he declared war and he launched an attack across the Alpes Maritimes against the French on the French Riviera. Four French di-

visions on the Riviera met the attacking twenty-eight Italian divisions, and they stood their ground, stopping the Italians cold. In the Riviera campaign the French had only eight men killed, while the Italians had nearly five thousand casualties. Mussolini, embarrassed, asked Hitler to send German paratroopers to help him, but the Führer refused.

In the north a steady stream of mechanized German troops raced south, and a massive exodus began from Paris as people left in cars and taxis and trucks and on foot. Paris was declared an open city, and by June 13 four-fifths of its population had fled. On June 14 Paris

fell and German soldiers goose-stepped down the Champs Élysées while "Deutschland über Alles" was played and a gigantic swastika banner was hoisted above the Eiffel Tower.

The French government had fled to Bordeaux in southwest France, and it was in a defeatist mood and willing to surrender quickly, especially after the eighty-four-year-old Marshal Henri Philippe Pétain, hero of World War I, became Premier on June 16. Almost the only member of the government urging a continued fight against the Germans was Charles de Gaulle who had been promoted to general on May 25 and appointed Under Secretary for De-

German troops marching beside the Arc de Triomphe as they occupy Paris on June 14, 1940. This German occupation of Paris would last four years until the liberation of the French capital by the Allies in August of 1944.



fense on June 10. Vowing to carry on the fight, he left Bordeaux for London on June 17 along with a number of other evacuees. He was to become the leader of the Free French in London, and the next day he broadcast a message across the Channel to the French people: "The flame of resistance must not and will not be extinguished."

Pétain, in Bordeaux, said that it was time to stop fighting, and he asked the Germans for an armistice. On June 21 Pétain's emissaries were led by the Germans to a railway coach near Compiègne (the same historic coach in which the Germans had signed the armistice in 1918) and they were presented with the terms of armistice, which were not subject to negotiation. The terms were severe. The south of France, which became known as Vichy, was to remain sovereign; although it was actually a German puppet regime under Pétain, until the Germans finally occupied it in 1942. Italy would occupy southeastern France. But all of northern France, including Paris, would become a zone of German occupation under German rule. All military prisoners captured during the campaign would remain German prisoners indefinitely. The value of the French franc was decreased exorbitantly against the deutschemark. (During the campaign the Germans had also captured the Channel Islands of Jersey, Guernsey, and Alderney, the only British soil which was to be occupied by Germany in World War II.)

Hitler's whole campaign in western Europe had taken only six weeks. At the end the French counted some 90,000 dead, while the Germans lost only 27,000. But Hitler had again radically changed the map of Europe. Nazi Germany now extended from eastern Poland across to the English Channel; it reached up into Denmark and Norway; and of course the Axis influence extended down through Italy. That summer of 1940 Hitler was to announce to the German people: "The success of Germany in the Euro-



A London poster in the summer of 1940 addressed to French exiles in the British capital: "To all Frenchmen. France has lost a battle! But France has not lost the war." The words were from a speech delivered a few days after the fall of France by General Charles de Gaulle who had set up a government in exile in London to continue the fight.

pean War elevates her to the greatest world power."

Only Britain now remained to fight the Third Reich. On June 18, as France was collapsing, Winston Churchill faced the House of Commons to announce that the Battle of France is over, adding: "I expect that the Battle of Britain is about to begin." He was right.

THE BATTLE OF BRITAIN

On June 4, after the evacuation from Dunkirk, Winston Churchill made one of the major speeches in the history of the British Empire. Addressing Commons, he said that even though all of Europe might fall, "we shall not flag or fail. We shall go on to the end . . . We shall fight in the seas and oceans . . . We shall

fight on the beaches, we shall fight on the landing grounds, we shall fight in the fields and in the streets, we shall fight in the hills; we shall never surrender."

Hitler, a dazzling orator himself, did not believe it, and he thought Britain had been backed into an inescapable corner. In fact, Hitler was quite satisfied with the situation in Europe after the fall of France. In *Mein Kampf* he had argued for living space for Germany to the east, and he had hoped for an alliance with Britain against the Communist menace of Russia. Now, with mastery of the continent in hand, he sent out strong peace feelers to Britain through Sweden, the Vatican, and the United States. He received no answer. Accordingly, on July 16 he issued to the German military commanders his "Directive No. 16 on the Preparation of a Landing Operation against England." The operation was known by the code name Sea Lion, and preparations for it were to be completed by mid-August. Nevertheless, on July 19 Hitler appeared in Berlin to make his final peace offer to England, and he pleaded: "I can see no reason why this war must go on." Within the hour, the BBC from London rejected the offer.

(Mussolini, listening to Hitler's speech in Rome, said that he was saddened by the peace offer because now more than ever he wanted to continue the war. Churchill, hearing Mussolini's remark, said that he would get "all the war he wanted.")

It is a matter of conjecture how seriously the German High Command took the Sea Lion Directive for the invasion of England, but the Germans did begin to make preparations, by building landing craft, by conducting training exercises in amphibious landings, and by constructing embarkation points along the French coast. Hitler's strong point that summer of 1940 was Britain's enfeebled state after Dunkirk and its general lack of preparedness against a cross-Channel invasion. One problem for Hitler was

the superior force of the British navy. But one overriding problem was the Royal Air Force: a crossing of the often treacherous English Channel would be impossible unless the *Luftwaffe* eliminated the RAF. But at this point Hermann Göring assured Hitler that his *Luftwaffe*, with its superior numbers, would drive the RAF from the skies.

Hence the Battle of Britain.

Although the war with Germany was to continue for almost another five years, those months of the summer and early autumn of 1940 have come to be known as the Battle of Britain, the aerial contest between the RAF and the *Luftwaffe*. At the outset of the battle the Germans had about 4,500 first-line aircraft poised for cross-Channel attacks, while England had 2,900 planes, a significant difference. The two principal RAF aircraft involved in the battle were the Spitfire and the larger Hawker Hurricane; the Germans used Messerschmitt aircraft, notably the ME-109, plus dense formations of Heinkel, Dornier, and Junkers bombers.

However, the British had a number of factors in their favor. The battle would be waged mainly over southeastern England, their home territory, and the RAF would therefore not have the fuel problems which the *Luftwaffe* would. The British had also developed radar, which the Germans did not have, and they could track the incoming aircraft. Furthermore, by that summer of 1940 British aircraft production was in high gear and it could replace downed aircraft more quickly than the Germans. During that summer Vickers and Hawker in England were producing 500 new planes a month, while Messerschmitt in Germany was producing only 140. But the biggest advantage for the British was the group of some 2,500 RAF pilots who saved England that summer. They were astonishingly young, daring, resolute, and a great many of them died in the conflict; they were mostly from Great Britain, but a significant number were from

Canada, Australia, South Africa, and America. Churchill said of them that, "Never in the field of human conflict was so much owed by so many to so few."

The German attack plan was simple and correct: the *Luftwaffe* would destroy RAF bases all over southern England, knocking off British aircraft on the way in, thereby leaving the British air force inoperative. And so the Germans went over the Channel day by day during the month of July, flying in dense formations of hundreds of fighter aircraft and bombers, while the RAF intercepted them by radar and engaged in lethal aerial dogfights. It was all daylight fighting, and Britons on the ground could witness the combat in the sky above them, as aircraft exploded in the air and plummeted to the ground. There was an ebb and flow to the daily battle: for a while it appeared as if the Germans had gained the upper hand and had shot down more aircraft, and then the RAF seemed to recover and win some striking engagements. But as the summer dragged on one thing became quite clear—the British, despite their heavy losses, were not being driven from the sky and they were able to replace their lost aircraft with more planes and more pilots. The British population was buoyed by the spirited defense, and the *Luftwaffe* was beginning to suffer severe morale problems in the face of its mounting losses of aircraft and manpower.

But the Germans continued to come: on August 15, for instance, the *Luftwaffe* flew 1,780 sorties, engaging British aircraft and bombing RAF airfields. One of the key factors in the British defense was not only the RAF aircraft in the sky but the ground crews which almost overnight were able to repair bombed airfields and make them useable the next day. Then, on August 24, came one of those unplanned turning points in a war when two German bombers flew off course and by mistake dropped their bombs over London, killing a number of civilians.

Quickly, Churchill ordered a reprisal raid, and a wing of RAF bombers made a bombing run on Berlin, which was followed by three more quick aerial strikes at the German capital. The infuriated Hitler ordered Göring to change his aerial strategy and send his bombers over London. This was the beginning of the blitz, the relentless bombing of London, which would continue at its most savage for the next year. It cost massive destruction and loss of life in London and elsewhere in England, but it diverted the *Luftwaffe's* attention from the British airfields and allowed the RAF to fly with impunity. It was a fateful tactical mistake for Hitler, which deprived him of any chance of gaining aerial control of the Channel.

One of the final engagements of the Battle of Britain occurred on September 15 when the *Luftwaffe* sent a force of some 400 bombers and 700 fighters toward London; they were met by 300 RAF fighters as they crossed the English coast. At the end of the fierce battle fifty-six German aircraft had been shot down, while twenty-six British planes were lost, but several dozen more *Luftwaffe* bombers limped home with dead crew members and engines ablaze, and at least twenty Messerschmitts had ditched in the sea after their tanks had run dry. Two days later, Hitler postponed operation Sea Lion indefinitely and he would never again contemplate or propose an invasion of England.

During that summer of 1940 Winston Churchill had said in another of his eloquent speeches that "if the British Empire and its Commonwealth last for a thousand years, men will still say, 'This was their finest hour.'"

THE SEA WAR IN THE ATLANTIC

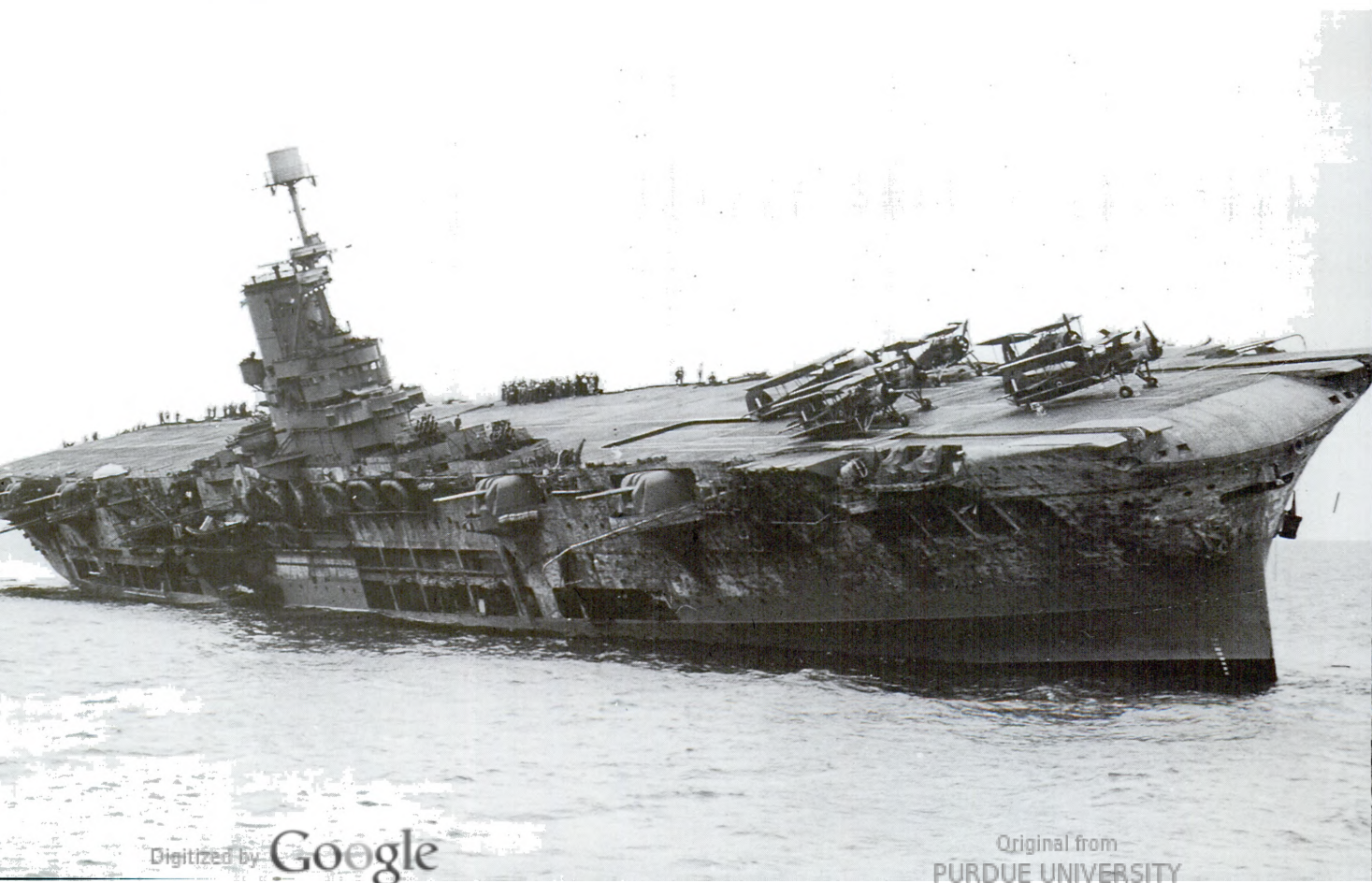
Although there were no ground military activities during the eight months of the "phony war," the sea war in the Atlantic began within a

few hours of Britain's declaration of war when on September 3, 1939, a German U-boat sank the British liner *Athenia* with a loss of 112 lives. Later that month another U-boat sank the British aircraft carrier *Courageous*, and in October the German U-47, in a truly audacious move, penetrated the British home naval base at Scapa Flow and sank the battleship *Royal Oak*. The only bright naval spot for Britain in those early months of the war occurred in December when British cruisers trapped the German "pocket battleship" *Graff Spee* near Montevideo, Uruguay, forcing it into port where it scuttled itself.

The true lethal weapon in the Atlantic war

was the German U-boat (*Unterseeboot*) which would inflict severe damage on Allied shipping, something that was critical for an island nation like Britain which relied on imports for its very existence. At the beginning of the war Karl Dönitz, the German U-boat admiral, had fifty-seven U-boats under his command, but the war plan called for the construction of a fleet of 300 U-boats, a figure which was reached by the middle of 1942. These underwater craft—which actually spent most of their time on the surface—had extraordinary success in the early part of the war. The *Atlantis*, for instance, sank twenty-two vessels by itself before it was finally

The British aircraft carrier Ark Royal after being struck by a torpedo from German submarine U-81 in the Atlantic on November 13, 1941. The carrier remained afloat throughout that day, but it finally sank on the following day. The U-81 was commanded by Lt. Friedrich Guggenberger, and it was one of the pack of German submarines which took a devastating toll on Allied ships. After the war Churchill said that "the only thing which really frightened me during the war was the U-boat peril."



intercepted and destroyed by the *HMS Devonshire* in November 1941. After the war, Churchill would recall that "the only thing which really frightened me during the war was the U-boat peril." Indeed, 32,000 British merchant seamen would lose their lives during the war.

The U-boat became even more effective after the fall of France when the Germans immediately transferred the base of their U-boat operations to the captured French ports of Brest, Saint-Nazaire, La Rochelle, and Lorient. They also wisely built reinforced "submarine pens" to protect their craft from British bombers. The effectiveness of these new French bases, which gave them immediate entrance into the Atlantic, was demonstrated by the fact that through 1940 and 1941 U-boat "kills" began to increase sharply. During eight months of extended U-boat warfare in 1941, they sank 328 merchant ships of 1,500,000 tons, a staggering number.

By the end of 1941, however, the tide began to turn in the North Atlantic for the British as they started to implement effective defenses against the U-boat coupled with search and destroy operations which inflicted devastating and incapacitating losses on the U-boat fleet. The basic British defense strategy was the formation of convoys, a large and armed naval escort which surrounded and protected merchant ships. Added to this was the available technology, notably asdic, the echo-sounding equipment which was able to detect underwater movements; it was called sonar in the American version. Radar, which had proved so valuable in the Battle of Britain, was also installed on the escort vessels in the convoys to detect surface operations. Thus, asdic and radar were operated in tandem, allowing the escort vessels in the convoy to track the U-boats both above and below the surface and to move in on them and destroy them with either artillery or depth charges.

There was one other factor in the growing British mastery of the North Atlantic which played a beginning role here but was to play an even more important function as the war progressed—the British had broken the German code. The cryptographers at the British Government Code and Cipher School at Bletchley had received a captured German Enigma machine from Poland, that enormously complex ciphering device which the *Wehrmacht* headquarters used to communicate with their armies and fleets during combat. The operation at Bletchley was one of the most closely guarded secrets of the war, and the daily intelligence reports of German plans and movements which it provided to the British High Command, and later to the Americans, were called Ultra.

Ultra was to be of incalculable advantage to the very end of the war as it offered advance notice of all German intentions and moves to the Allies. Amazingly, the Germans never imagined that their ingenious and complex ciphering device could be compromised and they felt that their Enigma was impenetrable—which was a kind of strange Maginot Line thinking.

THE AXIS IN AFRICA

While German and British aircraft were fighting over the Channel in that decisive summer of 1940, Benito Mussolini decided to make a unilateral military move. Figuring that the British were bottled up on their island and engaged in a desperate struggle to survive, he thought that this was a golden opportunity to expand the Italian Empire in North Africa by driving into Egypt, capturing Cairo from the British, and gaining control of the Suez Canal. He ordered an attack, and in August of 1940 Italian troops in Ethiopia moved eastward and overran British Somaliland.



British sailors loading a torpedo bomb on a torpedo aircraft in North Africa during the African campaign. This type of weaponry was a vital part of the victory in North Africa because it prevented the Axis ships in the Mediterranean from resupplying their troops in the desert. Enigma, the British code-breaking system, provided the location of the axis ships sailing toward North Africa.

In the north the Italian army in Libya was based in Tripoli, a short sea run from Sicily, and it was commanded by Marshal Rodolfo Graziani, who commanded 200,000 troops organized into twelve divisions. On September 13, Mussolini ordered him to begin an offensive against Egypt, and in a matter of days Graziani had crossed the Libyan border and driven sixty miles into Egypt. Defending Egypt was General Archibald Wavell, whose main base was at Alexandria, and who only had 63,000 troops, but he marched out to meet this superior force of invading Italian troops. Graziani, meanwhile, had halted his advance and constructed a firm base from which to meet the British.

Rome was jubilant that Italian forces had invaded Egypt, but the news was not nearly as good in the Mediterranean Sea. In July the Royal Navy had engaged the entire Italian battle fleet between Sardinia and Calabria, inflicting severe damage on it and forcing it to retire. In November the carrier *HMS Illustrious* caught the Italian battleships in the harbor of Taranto and its aircraft seriously damaged four of them. Finally, the British destroyed three heavy Italian cruisers in the night battle of Cape Matapan in March of 1941. From that point on, the Italian navy was not a factor, as Mussolini kept his battleships in port, and the British controlled the Mediterranean.

On the ground in North Africa the Italian forces had dug in at Sidi Barrâni in Egypt, and in December Wavell sent his troops against them. They were less than a third the size of the Italian forces, but the Italian defense crumbled, and the British routed them, sending them into a desperate retreat back along the coast which did not stop until it reached Beda Fomm, 400 miles to the west, in early February. During this engagement Wavell's forces had taken captive the amazing number of over 130,000 Italian troops.

Hitler was dismayed at this collapse of the

Italian forces in North Africa in 1941, but unlike the disastrous Italian campaign in southern France in the previous year, he decided to intervene this time, basically because he feared that the Italians were about to be driven off the continent, leaving the British in total control. Accordingly, he dispatched to Tripoli General Erwin Rommel, who had been so successful in the panzer campaign in France, and who brought with him the 5th Light and 15th Panzer Divisions, which would be the beginning of the famed Afrika Korps, the highly motorized and armored force which would streak across the desert in blitzkrieg maneuvers. Rommel himself would be lionized in the German press and around the world as the Desert Fox. When he arrived with his Korps in Africa in the spring of 1941, Rommel took charge of the desert campaign, and from that point on it was basically a German operation even though the Italians continued to participate in large numbers.

In that spring of 1941 Churchill had been withdrawing British troops from northern Africa to use them in the Balkan Campaign against Hitler, and this fact, plus Rommel's own military brilliance, allowed the German commander to push back the British forces in northern Libya, regaining practically all the territory the Italian forces had lost in the previous campaign. But as Rommel's forces raced across the desert they had extended their supply lines, and Rommel desperately wanted to take the Mediterranean seaport of Tobruk which was basically defended by the 9th Australian Division. Twice in the coming months he assaulted Tobruk, but both times he was repulsed, and it is historically important to note that Tobruk was the first German ground defeat in World War II.

As 1941 drew to an end, British and German forces in North Africa were basically in a stalemate, but this desert area would be the scene of fierce fighting during the next two years.

DRANG NACH OSTEN

Despite the failure of the *Luftwaffe* to overcome the RAF in the summer of 1940, Hitler was confident that his new Reich was secure and permanent. He was occupying what he called *Festung Europa*, Fortress Europe, that territory from Poland to the Channel which was now firmly in German control and impervious to attack. From this strong *Festung*, safe and impenetrable, he could now move out; specifically, he could begin his long-desired *Drang nach osten*—the drive to the east, which he had envisioned in *Mein Kampf*. In the early fall of 1940 he began to make plans with his General Staff for a direct assault into Communist Russia, which despite his duplicitous treaty of 1939 remained his ideological adversary and the object of his territorial desires for German expansion to the east. If nothing else, Hitler was consistent in his objectives.

But before he could make his major move to the east he wanted to obtain a springboard and security by controlling the Balkans. As a first step, in October of 1940 he sent what he called a "military mission" into Romania—a full army division, plus a *Luftwaffe* air defense force of a thousand men. He had used the pretext of protecting the Romanian oil fields and reorganizing its army, but what he had actually done was to move the German army closer to Russia and also to bring Romania into the Axis orbit.

Meanwhile, Mussolini, who had just sent his troops into Egypt in North Africa, was feeling particularly optimistic about Italy's military prowess, and on October 28 he invaded Greece, without consulting Hitler. His troops proceeded from Albania and then through the Epirus Mountains. The Greeks defended themselves in their mountain positions, and then on November 14 they launched a savage counter-attack, driving the Italian troops back inside

Albania. Mussolini's little Greek adventure was over.

Hungary and Romania formally joined the Axis in November, and Bulgaria did so shortly later; and throughout that winter and the spring of 1941 as these three countries began to fill with German troops there was great pressure on Yugoslavia to join the Axis. Finally, on March 25 Yugoslavia signed a pact with Germany, becoming yet another Axis member. But the following day Yugoslav Air Force General Bora Mirkovic denounced the treaty and in a coup seized the capital of Belgrade and set up a new government. Hitler was quick to act and he sent in German armies from Austria, Hungary, Romania, and Bulgaria. The German attack was lethal, quickly demolishing the Yugoslavian armies in twelve days. Not only did the confused Yugoslavs have to confront the Germans, but during the onslaught the country itself began to break up. Yugoslavia was a strange and tenuous melange of Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes which had been artificially created in 1919 after World War I, and during the German invasion of 1941 Croat and Slovene nationalists seized upon the opportunity to secede; however, after Germany's military victory both these groups were brought under German control. The only group which continued to resist was the partisans who took to the hills and continued to harass the Germans until the end of the war, first under the leadership of Draža Mihajlović, and then under Tito with his Communist guerrillas.

Having conquered Yugoslavia, Hitler now made a fateful decision: he would continue on and invade Greece and try to restore the lost Axis honor after Mussolini's defeat some months earlier. (By this time Hitler had already sent Rommel and the Afrika Korps to rescue the Italians in North Africa.) The German troops took an invasion route which led through the Vardar Valley in Macedonia into central Greece,



British officers on the lookout for German submarines on the bridge of an English destroyer which is escorting a convoy of ships. The convoy system—an armed naval escort which surrounded and protected merchant ships on their journeys—became the basic defense measure which defended the British fleet from the U-boat menace.

and although they experienced stronger resistance than they had in Yugoslavia they pressed on and entered Athens on April 27, 1941. At that point, Hitler declared Greece an Axis nation and handed it over to the Italians. British troops had been sent to Greece and participated in the short defense, but most of them managed to escape to Egypt or Crete before the country fell.

But then Hitler turned on Crete, and on

May 20 German paratroopers and men in air transports descended on the small Mediterranean island in the first airborne invasion in history. The Germans succeeded in wiping out most of the British forces on the island, and thus Germany and Italy now controlled the Balkans.

The German campaign in Greece in 1941, however, might have been an excessively costly one for Hitler. He had originally planned to in-

vade Russia earlier that spring, but he postponed it until late June while he drove south and finished off the Greeks. That diversion, according to many military historians, may have cost Hitler the Russian war, because by starting his advance that late in the year he ran into the deadly Russian winter before he could complete his blitzkrieg into Russia.

OPERATION BARBAROSSA

The German code name for the invasion of Russia was Operation Barbarossa—which was to be Hitler's second major mistake in the war—and Hitler fully expected it to be another quick and

successful blitzkrieg campaign lasting no more than a few months, particularly in light of similar successes in France, the Balkans, and North Africa. At the outset, it appeared as if that was the way it would be, but the war with the Russians would drag on for almost four years, causing catastrophic German losses and ending with the Russian troops marching into Berlin; and for the Russians—who always called it The Great Patriotic War—it would also be a horrendous struggle, as twenty million Russians died.

Throughout June of 1941 the Germans began to assemble a massive force in eastern Poland, facing Russia: 186 divisions stood poised, 19 of them panzer units with more than 3,000 tanks, plus 2,000 *Luftwaffe* aircraft behind them. Both

A joyous and victorious Hitler greeting his officers. By the end of 1941 his domination extended from the English Channel in the west, to the gates of Moscow in the east, through the Balkans in the south, and into North Africa. It was the high water mark of the Third Reich.



Britain and the United States warned Stalin that an invasion was imminent, but incredibly he refused to heed these warnings. (One Russian general said later that Stalin trusted no one—except Hitler.) Then, at 3:00 A.M. on June 22 the German artillery began firing, and three million German soldiers began advancing into the Soviet Union, the largest attack in history to date.

The German plan called for its armies to drive into Russia along three major axes: Army Group North would strike northeastward to Leningrad; Army Group South would move across the Ukraine toward Kiev; but the major force, Army Group Center, would drive directly through the middle toward Minsk and Smolensk and then the great prize, Moscow, which was only 700 miles from the frontier. And drive they did, with brutal success. In the first few days the *Luftwaffe* knocked out some 1,200 Russian aircraft, 800 of them on the ground; and by the end of the first week five Soviet armies had been eliminated with 300,000 prisoners having been taken. Nevertheless, the Russians fought tenaciously, and Stalin declared a “scorched earth policy” for his reeling troops which would not leave the advancing Germans any supplies or food.

By the end of the first two months the Germans occupied the westernmost 500 miles of the Soviet Union. In the south they raced through the Ukraine, and in the north they pushed up toward Leningrad and laid siege to that heroic city which resisted for 900 days at the cost of frightening numbers of casualties. But the big push was to be in the center, and in October the Germans began what they thought would be the decisive drive of the war, Operation Typhoon, the direct attack on Moscow. Sta-

lin appointed one of his most able commanders, Marshal Georgy Zhukov, to be the defender of Moscow, but as the Germans pushed to within a few miles of the city it would be defended also by that same Russian general who had defeated Napoleon—“General Winter.” On the evening of November 6, wet snow began to fall, and by morning Moscow was in the midst of a classic Russian snowstorm.

The Germans by now were fatigued and short of supplies, as a result of the scorched earth policy, and in their anticipation of a quick victory they did not even have winter uniforms or equipment. The *Wehrmacht* became weakened by frostbite and frozen machine guns that would not work, as well as tanks which got stuck in the ice and mud. German General von Beck pushed slowly to within forty miles of Moscow, but that was as far as he got. On December 5, 1941, the Red Army defending Moscow under Zhukov began its great counter-offensive, and it was bolstered by the newly-arrived reinforcements of ten Siberian divisions, troops which were equipped and trained in winter fighting. The Red Army smashed the Germans, driving them back and gaining the first Russian victory of the war. And they continued to push on, so that by Christmas they had regained almost all the territory the Germans had won in the final stages of Operation Typhoon.

Historian John Lukas says that the reversal of the German advance to Moscow on December 5, 1941, was “the turning point of the war”—because the Germans had been stopped—and two days later the United States would enter the war. From that point on, the odds were stacked against Hitler.

■ LC RESOURCE NOTES

In the COMPUTER CATALOG CENTER there are 52,000 entries under the subject heading World War, 1939–1945, but for easier location of specific material the subject heading of World War II is divided into over four hundred subheadings, which in turn are further divided. To follow the battles of the war, one of the most helpful of the subheadings is Campaigns, which is divided into some 240 headings. For instance under Campaigns—Norway there are eighty-five titles listed, and under Campaigns—Russia there are 273 titles.

This phase of the war can also be followed in the photographs of the PRINTS AND PHOTOGRAPHS DIVISION. The unpublished finding aid in the division is helpful in locating various lots of photographs which allow the war to be studied sequentially—for instance, some of those lots are: Invasion of Poland, Occupation of Norway, Invasion of Greece, and Russian Campaign. There are also the lots of photographs which show everyday life in Germany and England during the war.

The maps in the GEOGRAPHY AND MAP DIVISION show the changing face of Europe during the first phase of the war, so that by the end of 1941 the Reich extended from the English Channel to the outskirts of Moscow, north into Scandinavia, and south into the Balkans—truly one of the quickest and largest conquests in history. One very interesting holding of this collection is a volume of maps published in Berlin at the end of 1941 by the German General Staff which contains the daily situation maps of the German advance into Russia that year. These maps, which were drawn every day with true German precision, show the frightening speed with which the *Wehrmacht* marched across Russia during the first six months of the campaign. The division also has a collection of useful newspaper maps of the epoch. A February 1940 map of France published in the *Washington Post* shows the Maginot Line with the caption under it read-

ing “France Has Time to Wait”—and this caption appearing just ninety days before the smashing German invasion shows the unprepared mood of the time.

American accounts of the war can be followed in the SERIAL AND GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS DIVISION, notably in the *New York Times*. The London *Times* recounts life under the blitz, and the *Völkischer Beobachter Berlin* is filled with triumphal stories of German victory and conquest.

The MOTION PICTURE, BROADCASTING, AND RECORDED SOUND DIVISION has among its captured holdings the German newsreel *Die Deutsche Wochenschau*, the weekly newsreel from 1939 to 1945, which depicts marching German soldiers and a triumphant Adolf Hitler. The division also has the Italian newsreel *Istituto Luce* from 1938 to 1943 when Italy surrendered. The division, with its tens of thousands of hours of war-related broadcasts, has voice recordings of all the major players in the war to date: Hitler, Churchill, Mussolini, Pétain, de Gaulle, Göring, and Goebbels. There is the stirring speech of Churchill during the Battle of Britain, saying that “we shall never surrender,” and the speeches of de Gaulle from London directed back to occupied France. Among the many speeches of Hitler are his November 9, 1939, speech at Munich after the fall of Poland; the May 4, 1941, address to the Reichstag in which he discusses his successful campaign in the Balkans; and his August 8, 1940, speech, quoted above in the text, in which he says that Germany has been elevated to the “greatest world power.” Joseph Goebbels can also be heard in a June 22, 1941, speech announcing the invasion of Russia that day. One of the more intriguing items in the collection is a June 22, 1940, recording of the actual negotiations for the signing of the Franco-German armistice. The Germans, who were far advanced in sound recording techniques at that time, had

brought sound equipment into the railroad coach at Compiègne and produced forty-one records in which the voices of German and French officers can be heard plainly while the harsh terms were imposed upon France. In addition to these public figures of the era, the collection contains two sets of radio broadcasts from American news reporters in Europe which are gripping in their content—Edward R. Murrow, reporting from London during the blitz; and William L. Shirer, reporting from Berlin during the early years of the war when America was still neutral.

Eric Sevareid, a radio correspondent for CBS,

covered the war from Paris from 1939 to the fall of France and then reported from North Africa, England, and Asia. The MANUSCRIPT DIVISION's Eric Sevareid papers contain his radio scripts and his extensive correspondence with journalists and others about the course of the war.

The weapons of this war and its new kind of warfare can be researched in the SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY DIVISION where the on-shelf books are grouped in such categories as tanks, ships, weapons, and aircraft. The collection contains such helpful titles as *Radar in World War II* (New York, 1987).

THE WAR IN THE PACIFIC 1941 – 1942

PEARL HARBOR

In October of 1941 General Hideki Tojo became Premier of Japan, succeeding Prince Konoye, and the die was cast for war in the Pacific.

Tojo had been born the son of a general in Tokyo, and his own career was totally military; he achieved national prominence in Japan in 1935 as Chief of Staff of the Kwantung Army, the force that guarded Japan's interests in South Manchuria. He was part of the strong group of militarists who were trying to wrest control of the government from the civilians at a time when relations with the United States were deteriorating. During the 1930s Japan was fashioning ideas of an expanded empire in the western Pacific, and in 1937 it embarked on an undeclared war with China, an action which the United States deplored. In 1938, the United States extended twenty-five million dollars in credit to China, and it also placed an embargo on exporting American aircraft to Japan. After Japan occupied Indochina in 1940, the United States stopped shipping gasoline, iron, steel, and rubber to Japan, and it also froze all Japanese assets in the United States. Tojo and his military group regarded these as hostile acts, worthy of military retaliation.

Directing U.S. foreign policy in 1941 was President Franklin D. Roosevelt, who had been elected to an unprecedented third term in 1940. Roosevelt had been Assistant Secretary of the Navy in World War I, but then he was crippled by polio in 1921. However, he managed to work his way back into public life, masking his crippled status, and he was elected governor of New York in 1928. At the depths of the Depression in 1932 he was elected president, and he guided the nation during those somber years of severe economic crisis, while at the same time watching the gathering storms of war in Europe. Roosevelt was deeply sympathetic to Churchill's plight in his solitary resis-

tance to Hitler, and he helped him as much as he could by such programs as Lend Lease and the sale of old warships. But Roosevelt was facing strong opposition to any American involvement in the war from powerful isolationist groups across the nation.

Hideki Tojo would effectively stifle those American isolationists.

When Tojo became Premier of Japan in the fall of 1941 he immediately began to make plans to attack the United States. His initial plan was for a stealth aerial attack on the major U.S. naval base at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii which would cripple the American fleet and give him control of the Pacific. Tojo entrusted the attack to Admiral Isoroku Yamamoto, Commander of the Imperial Fleet, who said at the time: "In the first six to twelve months of a war with the United States and Britain I will run wild and win victory after victory. After that, I have no expectation of success." Seldom in history has a military commander been more honest or more accurate.

Nevertheless, on November 26, 1941, Yamamoto's carrier strike force departed from Japan, maintaining radio silence and approaching Hawaii from the north, the seldom-traveled route. There were battleships and cruisers in the strike force, but the heart of it was the group of six aircraft carriers which were capable of launching over 360 aircraft. On December 7, about two hundred miles north of Oahu, the Japanese launched their aircraft, first hitting Pearl Harbor at about 7:55 that Sunday morning—while "at dawn we slept," to use historian Gordon Prange's memorable phrase. The surprise was almost complete, and the destruction of the American naval base was calamitous. When the surprise attack ended almost two hours later over two thousand American servicemen had been killed; two battleships and two destroyers had been lost; eight other ships had been damaged; four other ships were sunk, although they were later salvaged; and

over 180 planes had been destroyed. On the other hand, the Japanese had lost only twenty-nine planes of the 360 they had launched. (Fortunately for the United States there were no aircraft carriers at the base during the attack, a fact which was to have enormous consequences six months later.)

Immediately following the attack, Tojo's government in Japan declared war on the United States and Great Britain. On December 8, 1941, Roosevelt appeared before Congress and asked for a declaration of war against Japan, calling December 7 "a date which will live in infamy." Then on December 11 Germany and Italy de-

President Franklin Delano Roosevelt addressing the nation by radio following the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor which drew the United States into World War II. In his address he rallied Americans "to the most tremendous undertaking." Roosevelt was the American wartime president, although he died suddenly in April of 1945, just four months before the cessation of hostilities.





The U.S. naval air station at Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941. Note the airplanes still on the ground, close to each other, and providing an easy target for the Japanese sneak attack.

clared war on the United States and the U.S. Congress followed that by declaring war on Germany and Italy.

The world was now truly at war.

"I WILL RUN WILD"

True to Yamamoto's prediction, the Japanese forces did indeed "run wild" during the early stages of the war in the Pacific.

Japan's effective surprise attack on Pearl Harbor was merely the first thrust in what was to be a coordinated series of blows against U.S. possessions which stretched across the Pacific to Wake Island, Guam, and the Philip-

pines. Within a few hours of the Pearl Harbor attack other Japanese bombers took off from Formosa and attacked Clark Field, northwest of Manila in the Philippines. Again, they caught the Americans napping with their planes on the ground, and by the end of the raid the Japanese had destroyed eighteen B-17s, fifty-three P-40s, and about thirty other aircraft. Thus, in the first few hours of the war, General Douglas MacArthur, commander of U.S. Army Forces in the Far East, had lost half his air force.

The British also were quickly brought into the conflict in the Pacific. On December 10, the two British capital ships, *Prince of Wales* and *Repulse*, were at sea near Singapore with a small escort of destroyers when they were attacked by Japanese torpedo bombers which had taken off

from southern Indochina. After two hours of relentless attack the two capital ships were sunk. Churchill, back in London, was stunned.

Then the Japanese began their amphibious attacks, and the first island to fall was Guam, 1,500 miles east of Manila. At midnight on December 10, over five thousand Japanese marines landed on the tiny island which was defended by a token garrison of 427 U.S. marines. Shortly after dawn the garrison surrendered, and the Japanese had captured their first American territory.

The next to fall was Wake, 2,300 miles west of Hawaii, which nevertheless put up a more spirited defense. The island was defended by Major James Devereux and his 447 marines, plus some seventy-five Army Signal Corps and Navy personnel, and on December 11 they withstood a landing attempt by a Japanese invasion force. During a fierce forty-five-minute battle the destroyer *Kisaragi* was sunk by a direct bomb hit, and six other Japanese ships were either sunk or destroyed. The Japanese withdrew, but they returned again on December 23 with a larger force which included two aircraft carriers and some two thousand crack Japanese marines. This time they got ashore, and although the fighting was savage the small American force was overwhelmed. Devereux raised the white flag.

The devastating Japanese onslaught in the Pacific continued throughout late 1941 and into 1942, as all sorts of western territories fell to the victorious Empire of the Rising Sun. On Christmas day of 1941 the British territory of Hong Kong surrendered to the Japanese after a three-week siege. That same month the atolls of Tarawa and Makin in the British Gilbert archipelago were captured. The Japanese then turned toward Singapore, but instead of storming it by sea as the British expected they advanced through the thick jungles of the Malay Peninsula and attacked the city from the rear. On February 16, 1942, the British surrendered

Singapore to Japan, and during that campaign the British surrendered over 130,000 troops—which British historian John Keegan calls “the single most catastrophic defeat in British military history.”

The big prize, however, was the Philippines, and the Japanese went at it from the outset by landing small groups on southeastern and northern Luzon in the week following Pearl Harbor. But the main attack came on December 22 when they landed 43,000 troops at Lingayen Gulf, 120 miles north of Manila; this force was coordinated with another amphibious landing at Lamon Bay, about seventy miles southeast of Manila, thus forming a pincer assault on the Philippine capital. MacArthur’s strategy was to sacrifice Manila and withdraw his troops into the defense of Bataan, a thirty-mile peninsula of wooded mountains and jungle.

On January 2, 1942, the Japanese occupied Manila, while MacArthur was digging in on Bataan with his 15,000 American and 65,000 poorly trained Filipino troops. Supplies and food were in short measure on Bataan, and the troops were under constant siege from the Japanese. Finally, recognizing the desperate situation, Roosevelt ordered MacArthur to escape, which he did on March 11, leaving the Philippines by torpedo boat and then flying to Australia where he assumed command of the Southwest Pacific area. General Jonathan Wainwright was left in charge on Bataan, and he held out until he surrendered on April 8. However, the 11,000-man garrison on Corregidor, a rocky fortress on Manila Bay, held out until May 6, the date of the ultimate conquest of the Philippines by the Japanese. Following this victorious campaign, the Japanese rounded up about forty thousand prisoners and forced them to march seventy miles to prison camps—the infamous Bataan Death March during which more than half of the prisoners died from starvation or maltreatment.

In the month of March, during that heady spring of 1942 for the Japanese, they also occupied Java and Burma. Burma offered rich resources of oil and tin, but if the Japanese could take it they could close the Burma Road, the last land route open to China. The British evacuated Rangoon on March 7, but Chinese troops under the command of American General Joseph Stilwell tried to hold Mandalay and protect the Burma Road. The Japanese were too numerous, though, and Stilwell and a handful of men marched through 140 miles of mountains and jungles to India.

Thus, in the first six months of the Pacific War Tojo had achieved the same kind of swift and overwhelming success that Hitler had accomplished in Europe and Russia in 1940 and 1941. Japan's domain now consisted of more than a million square miles of land in southeast Asia, and practically the entire western half of the Pacific Ocean; and more than one hundred and fifty million people had been added to the Japanese Empire.

There were only two encouraging moments for the Allies that spring of 1942. One occurred on April 18 when sixteen American B-25 bombers raided Japan in a daring move that had more propaganda value than tactical results. For the American military the purpose of this raid early in the war was quite simple: to bring the war to the Japanese people and to give a boost to American morale at a time when the nation was suffering a string of defeats in the Pacific. But the problems of such a daring attack were formidable: Japan lay beyond the aircraft range of any U.S. bases then present in the Pacific, and an attack by regular carrier-based aircraft with their 300-mile range meant that any carriers would have to put themselves within killing range of the Japanese mainland. The solution was to attempt to launch long-range land bombers from an aircraft carrier. Accordingly, on April 2 the *USS Hornet* set sail as part of a task force with sixteen B-25 bombers lashed to her deck. Leading the mission was Colonel James Doolittle who had been a famed and noted avi-

Washington, D.C., under its first total blackout in early 1942. During the war there was fear in the east coast cities of a German aerial bombing as was happening in London, but that never materialized.



ator during the 1930s. When the task force was about 650 miles from Japan Admiral William Halsey, the task force commander, gave the order to launch, and all sixteen aircraft took off successfully. Thirteen of them bombed Tokyo, while three hit other targets in Japan. The plan was that after the bombing run the B-25s were to fly on and seek sanctuary on the Asian mainland, but only four landed in China and one in the Soviet Union, while the remainder were abandoned by their pilots who parachuted out. However, seventy-one of the eighty fliers who participated in this celebrated adventure survived and returned to the United States in triumph. The raid itself inflicted no great damage, but it did shock the Japanese High Command who realized the vulnerability of their homeland, a fact they would become more agonizingly aware of in the three years ahead.

The other bright news that spring of 1942 for the Allies was the victory in the Battle of the Coral Sea, and it brought into play an extremely important weapon for the Americans in the Pacific: cryptologists had broken the Japanese code, just as earlier the English had broken the German code. The American intercept system, which was known as Magic, discovered that a Japanese carrier force was sailing to attack and occupy the crucial Allied air base at Port Moresby on the southeastern tip of New Guinea which would cut the Allied shipping lanes to Australia and perhaps provide an opening for the invasion of Australia. In response, American Task Force 17, under the command of Admiral Frank Fletcher, sailed out to intercept and repel the Japanese force. It would be the world's first battle between aircraft carriers, and the first major sea engagement that was done entirely by aircraft without the ships coming into direct contact. The first aerial engagement was on May 4, and the battle raged for four days. The *USS Lexington* was sunk, but the Japanese experienced severe damage: the car-

rier *Shoho* was sunk and a number of other ships were seriously damaged. The Japanese turned around, aborting the attempted invasion of Port Moresby, and they never tried it again. More importantly at the moment, the two large carriers, the *Shokaku* and the *Zuikaku*, were so seriously damaged that they had to crawl back to port for repairs, and they remained there—hors de combat—a month later when they could have been used during the critical Battle of Midway.

MIDWAY: THE DECISIVE BATTLE

Most historians generally agree that the Battle of Midway in June of 1942, even though it was only six months into the war, was the decisive battle of the war in the Pacific.

In late May, Admiral Yamamoto personally led a gigantic flotilla of Japanese warships eastward to attack and capture the island of Midway, some 1,100 miles northwest of Hawaii and the most westerly American possession in the Pacific at that time of the war. Midway was a base of enormous strategic importance because if Yamamoto could occupy it he would have a firm base for operations against Hawaii and the American fleet based there, as well as operations to the north against the Aleutians and even Alaska.

To gain this prize of the Pacific, Yamamoto had assembled the greatest naval fleet to date, more than 150 vessels, including eight carriers bearing 650 planes. Yamamoto himself sailed on the armada's flagship, the *Yamato*, the world's largest battleship. Up front, leading the naval attack, was the First Carrier Striking Force, under the command of Admiral Chuichi Nagumo, which would be responsible for the initial aerial attack on Midway.

Defending against this mighty flotilla was Admiral Chester Nimitz, Commander of the

Pacific Fleet, and his initial advantage was Magic: he knew the Japanese were coming and he knew where they were heading. His mighty disadvantage was the size of the defending force he had at his command. The Japanese ships outnumbered the U.S. forces defending Midway by a ratio of four to one, and the Americans had only three useable carriers in the area. Nimitz, however, decided to use what proved to be a brilliant ruse de guerre: using Magic and radar, he moved his fleet away from Midway, some 175 miles beyond the horizon, and allowed the Japanese to attack Midway uncontested.

Early on the morning of June 4, Admiral Nagumo launched his aerial attack against Midway, nine squadrons of bombers armed with fragmentation bombs. They were met by American land-based aircraft from Midway, which suffered devastating losses, while Midway was severely bombed. The Japanese aircraft returned to their ships, and then Nagumo made a critical decision: he would refuel the aircraft and arm them again for a second strike at Midway, rather than send them out with lighter armament to seek the yet unseen American fleet. It was at that moment that Nimitz's trap was sprung. American torpedo-bombers took off from the *Enterprise*, *Hornet*, and *Yorktown*, and they hit the Japanese fleet while their aircraft were on the deck in the midst of a slow refueling and rearming process. American aircraft took heavy losses in their repeated attacks, but they decimated the Japanese fleet. In one amazing episode at 10:25 that morning Lieutenant Commander Wade McClusky led his thirty-seven Dauntless dive bombers against the Japanese fleet and in a five-minute period he sank the *Akagi*, Nagumo's flagship, and the *Kaga*, and so crippled the *Soryu* that it was sunk by an American submarine that afternoon.

The aerial battle raged on until June 6, but the outcome was now certain, and on that date

Admiral Yamamoto ordered his fleet to retreat and return to home waters.

The price of the American victory at Midway was the loss of the carrier *Yorktown*, a destroyer, 150 planes, and 307 lives. But the Japanese had lost four carriers, one cruiser, 322 planes, and 3,500 men. It was a devastating blow to the heart and soul of the Japanese fleet; the Empire's fleet was crippled, and it would never again control the Pacific.

Yamamoto's "wild" run was over—but then the Battle of Midway was almost exactly six months after Pearl Harbor, just as he had predicted.

There was another factor for the U.S. Navy in the victory at Midway: it was the fulfillment of Plan Orange, the war strategy against the Japanese which had been taught at the U.S. Naval Academy at Annapolis for the two decades before Pearl Harbor. Actually, Plan Orange originally had been devised by the American military before World War I as a war plan in case of a war with Japan (there were also a Plan Red for war with Britain and a Plan Black for war with Germany). In Plan Orange the original tactic was to hold the Philippines at all costs until the U.S. fleet could move across the Pacific and encounter the Japanese. But in the 1920s and 1930s the plan was altered as it became evident that in the case of a sudden Japanese attack the initial defense of the Philippines would be impossible; and the revised plan saw the Japanese occupying the Philippines and other islands while the American fleet grew and assembled for an encounter someplace in the middle of the Pacific. (Midway was an unplanned encounter, but the word was astonishingly accurate.) After victory in the middle of the Pacific, the fleet would push slowly across the center of the Pacific, making amphibious landings on the islands, until it reached the Japanese mainland for an invasion. That was basically what the U.S. Navy did do in World War II in the Pacific.



American troops enjoying a performance given by the USO in 1942. During the war some 16 million Americans would serve in the armed forces, and 292,131 of them would die in combat.

Granted, there were deviations from Plan Orange, such as the island battles in the South Pacific ordered by MacArthur, and the dropping of the atom bombs which made the invasion of Japan unnecessary, but the Navy basically adhered to Plan Orange. After the war, graduates of Annapolis from the 1920s and 1930s would gather to exchange experiences from the Pacific and they would find that they had encountered no major surprises: they had followed Plan Orange—successfully.

ISLAND WARFARE

When the United States entered the war in December of 1941, Franklin Roosevelt made a key strategic decision with his Chief of Staff Gen-

eral George Marshall and his Secretary of War Henry Stimson: in fighting this two-ocean war with the Axis the effort would first be to defeat Hitler in Europe and then turn all American resources toward Japan which would then be standing alone. Thus the European theater would get top priority, but that did not mean the Pacific theater would be neglected; indeed, the Pacific war would be fought vigorously with the resources allocated there, while waiting for Hitler to fall when more forces could be added.

In the spring of 1942, the Joint Chiefs of Staff—General George Marshall and Admiral Ernest King—agreed on a division of strategic responsibilities in the Pacific. Admiral Nimitz would be commander of the Pacific fleet with headquarters in Hawaii, and he would be in

charge of the Pacific Ocean area where he would try to implement Plan Orange. General MacArthur would be commander of army forces in the southwestern Pacific area with headquarters in Australia where American troops were arriving in large numbers. MacArthur would basically be involved in island and jungle warfare, and the Navy would come down to assist him in landings and the protection of on-ground forces from the sea. In fact, the Navy was to become involved in some serious naval battles in the southwestern Pacific.

After the victory at Midway, which stopped the Japanese offensive, MacArthur felt it was time for the Americans to go on the offense, and his first objective was to capture Guadalcanal in the Solomon Islands where the Japanese were constructing an air base which could threaten Australia. Accordingly, on August 7, 1942, a task force of eighty-two ships approached Guadalcanal and landed an invasion force of 19,000 troops of the 1st Marine Division under the command of General Alexander Vandegrift. It was the Allies' first offensive action in the Pacific. The landing was a surprise to the Japanese and the marines waded ashore without any opposition. But then the Japanese stiffened and a fierce battle ensued which lasted throughout that fall of 1942, and the word *Guadalcanal* became a legend in the lore of U.S. Marine Corps history. This was the first of many jungle campaigns for the Allies, and the marines had to fight through heavy rains and deep mud, plus the jungle diseases like malaria which took a deep toll. There were Japanese snipers everywhere, and for the first time the marines encountered the fanatical code of Bushido which required the Japanese soldiers to fight to the death.

The Japanese were determined to hold Guadalcanal, and they sought to resupply their forces by sea. On August 24 a Japanese fleet car-

rying reinforcements was intercepted by the U.S. Navy east of Guadalcanal in what became known as the Battle of the Eastern Solomons. It was an American victory in which the Japanese lost a carrier, a cruiser, a destroyer, and some sixty aircraft. The U.S. Navy repulsed the Japanese again on October 11, and again on October 26, but in that latter battle the Americans suffered serious naval losses: the *Enterprise* was damaged, and the *Hornet*, the hero of Doolittle's raid on Tokyo, was sunk. Then, between November 12 and 15, three days of heavy fighting ensued between opposing battleships in an old-fashioned duel of capital ships with the result that the Japanese flagship *Hiei* was sunk, as well as the battleship *Kirishima*. But a number of smaller U.S. ships were lost, including the cruiser *Juneau*.

In all these sea battles around the Solomons the Japanese were unable to land reinforcements while on the ground the marines pushed ahead doggedly. The Japanese troops, starved of manpower and supplies, began to falter, and by December the outcome was certain. The Japanese Commander himself fled in January, and by early February all Japanese resistance on Guadalcanal had ceased. It was a costly loss for the Japanese who had 22,000 soldiers killed, while the 1st and 7th Marine Divisions, which had borne the brunt of the fighting, had only a little over a thousand killed.

While the marines were mopping up in Guadalcanal other Allied forces were engaged in savage fighting in the rain forests of New Guinea nearly one thousand miles to the west. The Japanese were attempting an overland approach to Port Moresby, the prize they were denied at the Battle of the Coral Sea, and they were being opposed by Australian riflemen. But the Japanese pushed forward, and at one point they got within thirty-two miles of Port Moresby. MacArthur, however, was de-

terminated to hold and he dispatched from Australia a force of 9,000 Australian and American troops, followed by the 7th Australian Infantry Division. Finally, he sent in the U.S. 32nd Infantry Division for a direct assault on Buna, the main Japanese bastion. On December 5, 1942, the Americans attacked Buna, while the Australians hit nearby Gona. The resistance collapsed: Gona fell on December 8, and Buna fell on December 13, effectively ending the Japanese presence in New Guinea.

Thus by the end of 1942 the picture in the Pacific had changed radically from one year earlier when in those weeks after Pearl Harbor the Japanese were moving from conquest to conquest. The Japanese advance had been stopped; its fleet had been halted decisively at Midway; and the Allies were beginning the slow and agonizing offensive process of island conquest as they moved toward the Japanese homeland, the ultimate objective.

By the end of that year Americans on the home front had become conditioned to a nation at war. In the first days of the war there had been the unrealistic euphoria that the Japanese would be defeated in a matter of weeks, but after the early Japanese victories this was replaced by a deadly fear of a Japanese invasion, particularly among people on the West Coast. This led to the shameful wartime internment of Japanese-Americans, a dishonorable event in American history for which the U.S. government paid reparations many decades later. But the victories at Midway and Guadalcanal gave a sense of assurance that the American forces in the Pacific were gaining control, and the people settled into a wartime economy. War production went into high gear, and Rosie the Riveter became the symbol of women who went to work in industry while the men marched off to war. The economy was good and money became plentiful again after the long years of



During the war gas rationing at home became part of the American way of life. Here in this picture taken in July of 1942 an attendant measures gas in accordance with a gas rationing book issued to the driver by the OPA.

the Depression. And Allied forces began to rack up significant victories in the Pacific and European theaters. The one distressing thing, though, was the growing appearance of gold stars in the windows of American homes, the symbol of an American killed in battle.

But by the end of 1942 Americans had come to the reluctant and inescapable conclusion that this global war would be a long one—two and a half more years of it, as it turned out.

■ LC RESOURCE NOTES

The **MANUSCRIPT DIVISION** has a rich lode of material about American involvement in the war. Most importantly, it contains the papers of Henry Stimson, Secretary of War from 1940 to 1945, who was a long-time Republican who had served as Secretary of State under Herbert Hoover; the Democrat Franklin Roosevelt had brought him into his Cabinet to present a bipartisan image of U.S. military policy. There are 115,000 items in the Stimson papers, and he was a meticulous record keeper, writing detailed military reports of American actions in the Pacific, Europe, and Africa. Stimson's large wartime correspondence is also in this collection with letters to such important people as Roosevelt, Churchill, Chiang Kai-shek, MacArthur, Truman, Marshall, and Patton. The collection also contains the papers of Frank Knox, Secretary of the Navy from 1940 to 1944, who was another Republican brought into the Cabinet for bipartisan motives; indeed, Knox had run against Roosevelt in 1936 as the vice-presidential candidate on the ticket headed by Alfred Landon. The 2,800 items in the Knox papers include his diaries, writings on his wartime service as Secretary of the Navy, and correspondence with such key figures as Roosevelt. Furthermore, this division houses the Naval Historical Foundation Collection, the largest collection in the United States of personal papers pertaining to American naval history. Among the papers of key naval people of World War II are those of Halsey, King, and Leahy; they discuss Navy policies and strategies during the war. This division also houses part of the William (Billy) Mitchell Collection, and the 20,000 items in the collection of this unheeded early proponent of military aviation contain his diaries, his correspondence, and his public statements about the danger of a coming war in the Pacific. Mitchell not only predicted that the Japanese would attack the United States in the Pacific from the air, but with uncanny accuracy he

described how they would attack at dawn with a massive group of aircraft launched from carriers.

The **ASIAN DIVISION** has the largest collection of Japanese-language material outside Japan, and it contains extensive material about World War II, much of it seized by the occupying Allied Forces in 1945. There is the South Manchuria Railway Collection, which documents Japan's prewar expansion as the nation prepared for a larger war. South Manchuria Railway Company's research sections made thousands of studies for the company and government agencies, covering the natural resources, social relations, economic possibilities, and political conditions in Manchuria, north, central, south, and interior China, Korea, Japan itself, the former Soviet Union, and even more distant countries for a period of nearly forty years. There are over 2,100 reels of microfilm of Foreign Office Archives covering the years 1868–1945 which detail Japan's policies before and during the war. There are also 163 reels of microfilm of historically significant archives and documents from the Imperial Army and Navy Ministries which follow the order of battle during the war.

This phase of the war can also be researched in the **COMPUTER CATALOG CENTER**, principally by using the subject heading World War, 1939–1945 and then the subheading Campaigns, which is divided into such campaigns as Guadalcanal and Midway. The catalog also contains over 2,200 regimental histories, and the researcher can use these to study the various regiments as they fought through their individual campaigns.

Daily accounts of American involvement in the war can be seen in the multiple newspapers of the **SERIAL AND GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS DIVISION**. There are American distraught accounts of the many early Japanese victories, and then a sense of relief in the accounts of Midway and Guadalcanal. Interestingly, there are other newspaper

reports immediately before the war which display an American sense of hubris and over-confidence. For instance, the *Washington Post* for December 7, 1941, published a report of a speech which had been given the day before by Senator Owen Brewster, a member of the Senate Naval Affairs Committee, in which he said that "the United States Navy can defeat the Japanese Navy at any place and at any time." The newspaper hit the streets on the morning of December 7, and a few hours later the news was being broadcast that the U.S. Navy had suffered its worst defeat in history.

The PRINTS AND PHOTOGRAPHS DIVISION contains photographs of Americans now at war on ships and airplanes and amphibious operations in the Pacific. The division also contains the other part of the William (Billy) Mitchell Collection, 4,800 photographs which detail the beginnings of U.S. military aviation.

The MOTION PICTURE, BROADCASTING, AND RECORDED SOUND DIVISION contains 450 captured Japanese newsreels which show life in Japan both before and during the war. The division has the *Asahi News* from 1935 to 1939; the *Yomiuri News* from 1936 to 1940; and the *Nippon News* from 1940 to 1945. In addition, it has 200 Japanese feature films and 750 documentaries and propaganda shorts. Furthermore, the division in its collection of American motion pictures has films which show how Hollywood was responding to the war. In September of 1942, just eight months after the Battle of Wake Island, a feature film was released called *Wake Island* which dramatized the ordeal of the courageous but doomed small group of marines on that tiny island. The picture enjoyed enormous success, and it helped to raise the cry "Remember Wake Island," which was now added to "Remember Pearl Harbor." But Americans were also turning their attention to Europe, and in that same year another extremely popular film was released, *Mrs. Miniver*, which told the tale of

an heroic ordinary British family which participated in the retreat at Dunkirk by using their own small pleasure craft to rescue soldiers. The RECORDED SOUND REFERENCE CENTER of this division has a recording of Roosevelt's date of infamy speech before Congress on December 8, 1941, as well as voice recordings of all the other major American figures of the war, such as MacArthur and Stimson. One of the major holdings of this division is the National Broadcasting Company Radio Collection; this large collection covers the NBC radio broadcasts of the World War II period, a time when radio was such a significant factor in homes across the nation. These broadcasts are on instantaneous discs, and many of them have been transferred to tapes. On them can be heard not only the daily news broadcasts of the time but also the entertainment programs which constituted the major commercial American home entertainment during that period, such as *Fibber McGee and Molly*, *Eddie Cantor*, and the *Rudy Vallee Variety Program*.

The MUSIC DIVISION chronicles the history of the music and songs of the wartime, not only the swing and big band sound of the era, but also the popular songs which reflected the mood of America at war. Early in 1942 there was the bouncy song *Good-bye, Momma, I'm off to Yokohama* with a verse stating that American troops would be in Japan in a few months—a reflection of the early misconceptions of the strength of the Japanese. That was followed the same year by the derisive comedic song *Der Führer's Face*; a happy song, *Rosie the Riveter*, which described women going into wartime industries; and Frank Loesser's *Praise the Lord and Pass the Ammunition*, a patriotic song with an almost martial beat. But the true reality of the moment was captured by another 1942 song, *When the Lights Go on Again all over the World*, a sentimental and wistful ballad.

THE TURNING TIDE

1942 – 1944

THE DESERT WAR

After that momentous first week of December 1941 when the Germans had been stopped at Moscow and the Americans had entered the war, Stalin's hopes began to soar and he started to entreat his new allies for what he felt would now be the decisive factor in the war: the opening of a Western Front, the invasion of occupied France by an English-American expedition which would then force the Germans to fight on two fronts as they had done in World War I. But Churchill was reluctant, remembering the ghastly trench warfare of World War I in France, and he preferred to attack Germany from other angles—notably in the Mediterranean where he would “hit the soft underbelly of the Axis,” to use his phrase. Stalin scoffed, but Churchill was able to convince Roosevelt to go along with him for the time being. This meant more warfare in the Mediterranean, and it also meant that the first American troops deployed in the west would be sent to North Africa.

On May 27, 1942, after a winter lull, Rommel with his Afrika Korps went on the attack again, and there ensued a series of seesaw battles with each side taking and losing ground again and again. But by June 21 Rommel had taken Tobruk, the prize denied him before, and he prepared to move on into Egypt. At that point a new figure moved in upon the scene: the enigmatic British General Bernard Law Montgomery—Monty to his men—who was made commander of the 8th Army. Montgomery took his stand at El Alamein, sixty miles from Alexandria, and there he stopped Rommel. By the beginning of November Rommel admitted defeat and he began to remove his troops, retreating westward. Then Monty went on the attack, and by October he had rolled on to Tripoli and southern Tunisia.

Meanwhile the Americans were planning to enter the battle—in a campaign coded Opera-

tion Torch—and they landed in French North Africa on November 8 with a force of 107,000 troops, three-fourths of them American, the rest of them British. This operation—commanded by American General Dwight D. Eisenhower—employed 500 troop and supply ships, escorted by more than 350 warships, and it caught the Germans by surprise. (As soon as Hitler learned about the Allied landings in North Africa in 1942 he ordered German troops to occupy all of France, thus ending the fiction of the Vichy government.)

After landing, the American forces expected

to make the 450-mile march from Algiers to Tunis, but the inexperienced American troops meeting the hardened German desert soldiers were stopped cold at Chouigui, and Eisenhower decided to postpone his advance until the spring. Nevertheless, by the spring of 1943 two large Allied armies dominated most of the North African coastline—Montgomery's in Libya, and Eisenhower's in Algeria and Morocco—and the Germans were trying to fight their way out. As a counterstroke, the German Fifth Panzer Army under the command of General Jurgen von Arnim attacked the Americans

American troops fire 105 mm howitzer shells at German troops in their defense of the Kasserine Pass in North Africa in this picture taken on February 20, 1943. The unseasoned American troops had fared badly in their initial military engagements in North Africa against the battle-hardened forces of General Rommel's Afrika Korps. The Americans had been beaten and they retreated, but they finally held at the Kasserine Pass.



at Sidi Bou Zid, defeating them soundly. The 2nd U.S. Army Corps lost two battalions each of armor, artillery, and infantry; and it beat a hasty retreat across the wastes of Tunisia until it arrived at the Kasserine Pass. There the corps stopped and took up positions to meet the oncoming German panzers, and again it took devastating losses, but it held, or at least Rommel refused to press his advantage. Rommel was concerned about the high ground which the Americans occupied which would force his exposed tanks to roll through narrow valleys, and

General Dwight D. Eisenhower (right) and General George Patton in Tunisia on March 16, 1943. Eisenhower was the Supreme Allied Commander in North Africa, but things had gone badly for the Americans in the first battles. Then, a few days before this picture was taken, Eisenhower appointed Patton as commander of the U.S. 2nd Army Corps and told him to put some discipline into the American troops. Patton came through: he defeated the Germans in North Africa, following this up with victories in Sicily and later in northern Europe. Patton was one of the premier field commanders of World War II.



his shortage of supplies had reached the desperate stage. On February 23 he pulled his troops from the Kasserine Pass and turned them around and marched them back to meet the oncoming Montgomery.

By the end of February 1943 the German supply situation had become truly critical, due mainly to the Allied air and sea interdiction of German resupply efforts. For instance, in the month of January alone the Allies had sunk twenty-two German supply ships which were trying to make their way to North Africa. Back in Germany even Hitler realized that the Afrika Korps was doomed, and fearing that the popular Rommel whom Goebbels had raised to heroic stature in the German press might well be captured, he ordered him home on March 6, leaving von Arnim in command of all German forces in what would now be known as Army Group Africa.

At the same time that Rommel departed, another major figure stepped into the spotlight in North Africa: General George S. Patton, who had landed in Morocco in 1942, and who now in March of 1943 was appointed commander of the 2nd U.S. Army Corps by Eisenhower who wanted some dramatic changes after the poor showing of American soldiers thus far. Patton was the man, and by toughness and discipline he quickly galvanized his men into an effective fighting force—a trait which was to earn him the sobriquet Blood and Guts for his decisive victories in Africa, Sicily, and France. Patton moved forward rapidly and on May 6 he overran the last Axis stronghold before Bizerte, and then he launched an attack aimed at the Bizerte-Tunis road. From the other side the British were in full advance toward Tunis. The rout was on, and the *Luftwaffe* abandoned its Tunisian bases on May 8, flying out of North Africa. The Americans took Bizerte on May 7, and the British arrived in Tunis the same day. The campaign was effectively over, although desultory



May 9, 1943. German prisoners of war in the Allied war camp at Mateur in North Africa. Some 9,000 German prisoners had been taken and interned on this one day. The elite Afrika Korps was collapsing.

fighting continued for the next week, but on May 13 the Axis forces surrendered; 275,000 soldiers were taken captive, including General von Arnim. The British command in North Africa sent a message to Churchill: "We are the masters of the North African shores."

The Allied victory in North Africa was the largest capitulation imposed to date by an Allied force upon the Axis. Hitler could survive the defeat because the greater part of his army was still in Europe, but for Mussolini it was an unmitigated disaster. *Il Duce* had boasted in Italy of the creation of a great Italian Empire in North Africa, and now he had lost the greater part of his army there in the desert sands. Furthermore, this was the third major Italian campaign of the war, and he had been defeated in all three of them. His regime in Italy suddenly looked quite fragile, and Churchill thought that with a little shove he could knock *Il Duce* over.

THE "UNDERBELLY"

In January of 1943 while the battle for North Africa was still joined, a high-level meeting was held in Casablanca among Roosevelt and Churchill and their military strategists. This was the meeting at which Franklin Roosevelt, without any prior consultation, announced that the terms for Germany were "unconditional surrender," a phrase which was greeted by surprise and chagrin from many military leaders who felt that this uncompromising statement would only stiffen German resistance to fight on to the bitter end, causing more Allied deaths. But Roosevelt would not back down, and Churchill supported him.

The main item on the agenda at Casablanca, however, was the next step in the attack against the Axis. By this time Stalin was furiously demanding a cross-Channel landing in 1943, but



again Churchill demurred, saying that the American-Anglo force was not strong enough yet, despite the fact that there had been a tremendous buildup of American troops and aircraft in England. He still wanted to go for that "underbelly," and Sicily was his next target. Roosevelt agreed, although his military staff wanted a cross-Channel operation in 1943. It would have to wait for another year.

The Allied invasion of Sicily—Operation Husky—took place on July 10, 1943, as an immediate follow-up to the victory in North Africa, and Dwight Eisenhower was the Allied Supreme Commander. The two main battle groups were the British 8th Army under Montgomery and the American 7th Army under Patton, but the famed American 82nd Airborne also made parachute landings and did forced marches across Sicily. After a slow start, the Allies started to roll with Patton moving toward Palermo and Montgomery moving toward Messina. In a lightning campaign, Patton's forces covered 100 miles in four days, encountering only slight resistance along the way, until they entered Palermo where they found the city deserted by the Germans but full of Italian soldiers eager to surrender.

While the campaign was being waged in Sicily, Churchill's shove worked in Rome. The Italians were now thoroughly disgusted with Mussolini; not only had they been ignominiously defeated in their three campaigns, with Allied forces now on Italian soil, but the economy was a shambles and food was in short supply. On July 25, the Grand Council of the Fascist party voted no confidence in *Il Duce*,

who was then dismissed from office and placed under arrest. The Italian military Marshal Pietro Badoglio was named Premier of Italy.

For weeks Mussolini was held captive in a hotel in the Apennine Mountains, until Hitler ordered a rescue operation; after all, Hitler had told Mussolini after his acquiescence in the Austrian Anschluss that he "would never forget." The daring operation was accomplished on September 16 under the direction of the brilliant SS Captain Otto Skorzeny whose team landed in gliders on a meadow near the hotel, bundled Mussolini into a small Storch aircraft, and flew him back to Germany. Hitler bolstered him up and then sent him back to northern Italy to establish a farcical new north Italian Fascist state under German control and protection.

In Sicily the campaign lasted only thirty-nine days, ending on August 17 when Patton entered Messina, after he had turned and beaten Montgomery to the city. But again he found a city deserted by the Germans who had escaped with most of their equipment across the Strait of Messina to the Italian mainland where they would set up and wage grueling war until April of 1945. Allowing the escape of these German forces from Sicily was a major tactical mistake for the Allies which they would regret for the many months ahead.

The new Italian government announced publicly that it would continue to fight on as a member of the Axis, but almost at once they secretly began to engage in discussions with the Allies about an armistice. Eisenhower was empowered by Churchill and Roosevelt to conduct the negotiations with the Italians which went slowly because they demanded a number of concessions and stipulations, but the Allies' position was firm and simple: unconditional surrender. Finally, on August 31 Eisenhower gave them an ultimatum, and on September 3 they signed the surrender. Then on October 13, Italy became a cobelligerent and declared war on

OPPOSITE PAGE: U.S. forces disembarking from an American transport during the invasion of Sicily on July 9, 1943. This was the first invasion of the Axis homeland, attacking what Churchill called the "soft underbelly of Europe."

Germany. None of these moves had any real impact on the war in the boot of Italy. The Germans were already there, having used it as a staging area for North Africa, and they transferred other troops down the boot to meet the expected Allied invasion. Thus the Wehrmacht would fight the Allies on foreign soil, something the Germans liked to do, and they would dig in, forcing the Allies to fight tenaciously up the uneven Italian terrain. The Allies had hoped that when Italy became a cobelligerent Italian soldiers would attack German garrisons in all parts of the country, but the Italian soldiers mostly allowed themselves to be disarmed by the Germans. There did develop, however, groups of Italian partisans who hid out and made raids upon the Germans.

The German commander in Italy was Field Marshal Albert Kesselring who had been an officer in the *Luftwaffe* and was to prove himself an astute and highly competent ground strategist in the Italian campaign. He had 400,000 troops under his command, including elite panzer divisions, and he was able to convince Hitler that his troops and the terrain provided a unique opportunity to halt the quick Allied advance. The Italian peninsula, he argued, had a central mountain spine, rising in places to almost ten thousand feet, with numerous spurs to the east and west containing many rivers and valleys which provided a succession of very defensible lines. He was correct, and he would inflict enormous losses on the Allies as they inched their way up the Italian peninsula, demonstrating to Churchill that the underbelly was not so soft after all.

The Allied invasion of Italy took place on September 9, 1943, under the direction of the American General Mark Clark who commanded the 5th Army and who had under his command two corps, the U.S. 6th and the British 10th. They hit the beach at Salerno on the western coast of Italy, and even though they secured the

beachhead they were soon hit by counterattacking panzers. The Allies managed to maintain a foothold, but in the ensuing days waves of German attacks threatened to throw them back into the sea. After nine days of fierce fighting, the Germans pulled back from the beachhead on September 19, a strategic move by Kesselring to withdraw to the Apennines where he would bog down the Allies.

Once out of the beachhead at Salerno, Clark began his march northward, and on October 1 the first units of the 5th Army entered Naples. The Germans had attempted to destroy the harbor in their retreat and they left wrecks of more than 130 ships, but the U.S. engineers set to work and in just four days they cleared the harbor and Allied ships could enter. Meanwhile the British 8th Army under General Montgomery, which had landed at Taranto, was moving up the east coast of Italy, and they captured the airfield complex at Foggia which would allow heavy bombers to attack southern Germany.

Thus by early October the American 5th and the British 8th armies had established a continuous 120-mile line across the Italian peninsula, running along the Volturno River north of Naples and the Biferno River which flows into the Adriatic. Things looked bright for the Allies, and Eisenhower ordered them to press on to Rome less than one hundred miles away. It was here that Kesselring exercised his military genius, creating north of the Volturno what has become known as the Winter Line. It was a territory composed of mountains and rivers and valleys, and the Allies could not make any significant progress through it in the face of fierce German resistance.

As a desperate measure, the Allies attempted to make an amphibious end run around the German lines on January 22 by a landing at Anzio, thirty-five miles south of Rome. This amphibious action, which was spearheaded by the 6th Corps of the American 5th Army, was suc-

cessful at first and for the next number of days more supplies and manpower were brought ashore on the beachhead; but then the Germans counterattacked in superior numbers, threatening to drive the Allies back into the sea, as had happened at Salerno. But again the Allies held—barely—until finally on February 20 the Germans acknowledged that they could not wipe out the beachhead and they drew to defensive positions. Nevertheless, for all practical purposes the Allies were pinned at the beachhead and would remain that way for three months. It was at this time Churchill made his witty but sad remark about Anzio: "I had hoped

A now confident President Roosevelt in November of 1943 flying with General Eisenhower to a wartime conference of the Big Three at Tehran at the foot of the Elburz mountains in Iran.



November 28, 1943. The Big Three meet at Tehran. From left: Stalin, Roosevelt, and Churchill. A major item on the agenda of this meeting was the invasion of Western Europe scheduled for six months later. These three leaders of the major Allied powers were men with different personalities and ideologies, but they managed to coordinate their efforts militarily to bring about the defeat of the Axis.



that we were hurling a wildcat onto the shore, but all we got was a stranded whale."

The other major attempt to breach the Winter Line took place at Monte Cassino in the center of the Line. This attack was led by General Sir Bernard Freyberg and his New Zealand Corps which was composed mainly of the 2nd New Zealand and 4th Indian Divisions—an indication of the multinational character of the Allied Force now opposing the Axis. The great obstacle was the fortresslike Abbey of Monte Cassino, where St. Benedict had established the roots of western monasticism in the sixth century, and which the Germans were now using as a shield. After warning the monks and refugees, by dropped leaflets, to depart, Freyberg ordered an aerial bombing of the Abbey on February 15. Allied bombers dropped nearly six hundred tons of explosives, and some three hundred people inside were killed during the raid. But although the Abbey itself was in ruins, the base of the ten-foot thick walls had not been breached and they provided excellent protection for the defending Germans. (The bombing of this venerable Christian site caused a considerable amount of criticism at the time and during the subsequent years after the war.)

After the bombing, the Allies made the first of a number of unsuccessful assaults on Cassino, but each time they were thrown back with heavy losses. On March 15, they made another large aerial bombardment of the whole Cassino area and attacked again, but after a week of intense fighting the Germans were still not dislodged. On May 11, the Allies launched another broad assault, now using Polish forces and Free French forces. The Polish 2nd Corps had two divisions and a brigade, and it was poised at the foot of the slopes leading up to the Abbey of Monte Cassino. For the Poles facing the Germans this was the moment of revenge for the rape of their country nearly five years earlier, and they rushed up the slopes with a deter-

mined ferocity and engaged the Germans in a brutal battle. On the evening of May 18 the Germans withdrew and the next day the Poles occupied the Abbey and raised their flag. In the Cassino operation the Poles lost nearly four thousand men.

The Germans were now in retreat along the length of the main battlefront as the Americans and the British pushed forward. The plan was for the U.S. 6th Corps to pursue and trap large numbers of the retreating Germans, but Mark Clark suddenly changed the plan: he was afraid the British might slip past and enter Rome, and he wanted that prize for himself. He ordered two-thirds of the Corps to break off and wheel northwest toward Rome. This move of self-aggrandizement infuriated the British—and many Americans—because it allowed the Germans to escape, fleeing to the north of Rome where they set up new battle lines and fought on in Italy for almost another year.

On the evening of June 4, 1944, the first American troops entered the undefended Rome, and the city became the first Axis capital to fall. With the fall of Rome, the first phase of the Italian campaign had been completed, but at fearful cost: Allied casualties were 40,000 dead, wounded, and missing; the Germans lost 38,000 men. And Hitler, with Kesselring's superb generalship, had accomplished one of his objectives for 1943–1944: he had kept the Allied divisions engaged in a slow and costly war on the Italian peninsula, thus preventing them from being used in Britain as part of the buildup for a cross-Channel invasion. Ironically, just two days after the fall of Rome, on June 6, the Allies launched their cross-Channel invasion.

THE RUSSIAN FRONT

After stopping the Germans at the outskirts of Moscow in December of 1941, the Russian Red Army went on the offensive in January of 1942,

but it made limited gains. Hitler, fearing a "Napoleonic retreat," fired and replaced commanders, and ordered them to hold the line at all costs, which the Wehrmacht did. Thus, in early 1942 there was a winter standoff which saw the Germans and the Russians facing each other along a long line in Russia which stretched from the Baltic in the north to the Black Sea in the south.

Both Stalin and Hitler planned spring offensives in 1942, and Stalin moved first in a series of attempted advances which proved to be complete disasters for the Russians. In the north, the Red Army tried to relieve the siege of Leningrad in April, but after some initial successes it was caught in a German trap where it lost 70,000 men. In the middle of the line, the Russians drove on Kharkov in May, but they also

got caught in a German trap, losing almost a quarter of a million men. In the south of the line, the Soviet forces went on their Crimean offensive to relieve Sevastopol, but the German 11th Army under the command of General Erich von Manstein stopped the advance, moved along the Kerch Peninsula, and took Sevastopol on July 1.

Hitler's battle plan for the Russian campaign of the summer of 1942 was quite ingenious: he knew that Stalin had amassed the major part of his forces in front of Moscow, expecting another assault on the Russian capital, and so he decided to ignore it and drive south to the Caucasus, that region rich with natural resources. Standing in his way was the city of Stalingrad, a provincial center of 500,000 inhabitants, which was Russia's third largest industrial city and a

Russian Red Army soldiers firing at German attackers during the siege of Stalingrad in early 1943. Over a million soldiers and civilians died during the battle of Stalingrad, one of the major battles of all time. After the crushing German defeat at Stalingrad, Churchill called it "the hinge of fate."



prize in itself. Stalingrad on the Volga River looked like such an easy target to take, but it was to become one of the great decisive battles of World War II where a million soldiers and civilians would die, a battle which Churchill called "the hinge of fate."

On June 28, three mighty German armies, including the powerful 6th under General Friedrich von Paulus, set out for Stalingrad as the Russian armies made a strategic retreat to withdraw and set up a defense of the city. In the meantime the 16th Panzer Division under General Hans Hube captured Rostov and then turned to join the march on Stalingrad. To defend the city, Stalin had appointed General Andrei Ivanovich Yeremenko as commander, and he in turn placed General Vasily Ivanovich Chuikov in charge of the 62nd Army, the chief defender of the city.

When the Germans finally drew up for their assault on Stalingrad they had 270,000 men, 1,800 guns, 500 tanks, and 1,000 supporting aircraft. And then they hit. A major offensive was begun on September 13, and the Germans broke into the city, supported by bombardments and air strikes, but they could not subdue it as the Russians defended it with ferocious street fighting by soldiers, civilians, and snipers. Inch by inch, block by block, the Germans fought their way until by early November General von Paulus occupied 90 percent of a basically devastated city.

It appeared to be a desperate moment for the Russians, but the situation was not as dire as it might seem. The Germans had achieved important victories and they had driven deep into Russia, but they also had extended their supply lines to a very feeble point. Their manpower was also being stretched thin: they had massive amounts of troops in Russia, but they were also supplying troops to North Africa, and they were building up a force in France along the Channel to protect against an invasion; in addi-

tion, they had to station troops in the Balkans to fight growing partisan groups like Tito's in Yugoslavia, which would eventually reach 100,000 men. On the other hand, Russian munitions production had gone into high gear and it was turning out enormous amounts of tanks and planes and weapons. Most important, the Russians were fighting on their home soil for "Mother Russia."

Stalin was not about to concede Stalingrad, and with General Zhukov he devised a massive counterattack. It was a secret plan that fall of 1942 and not even the beleaguered Chuikov in Stalingrad was aware of it, but Zhukov gathered up all other available Red Army units and began to deploy them on the Germans' northern and southern flanks around Stalingrad. When he had them all in place there were more than one million Russian soldiers poised to attack, and they went into motion on November 19. The Russian infantrymen, all but invisible in their white winter combat outfits, plodded through the swirling snow, and in a few days they had completely surrounded the German 6th Army. For many weeks the Russians were content to contain the 6th Army within a ring nearly forty miles deep in places, but in January they opened up a mighty barrage and attacked fiercely, decimating the German forces and virtually destroying the 6th Army. On January 31, 1943, von Paulus surrendered, and by that time only 110,000 of his original force of 270,000 men were still alive. (And few of the 110,000 captured soldiers survived transport and imprisonment.)

The bells of the Kremlin in Moscow were rung to celebrate this great victory, which was in fact one of the major battles of all history. General Chuikov, whose 62nd Army had withstood the Germans at Stalingrad, moved his force westward the following month to the Donetz River to take up positions for new offensive actions against the Germans; and the next

time Chuikov and his soldiers fought a battle for a city it would be in the streets of Berlin.

By the time that the spring of 1943 arrived, German troops had been in Russia for almost two years—and Hitler had thought that his Russian campaign would last only a few months, a gross miscalculation on his part. Nevertheless he planned to launch another offensive against the Russians that spring, and it would prove to be the last major German offensive in Russia, the site of another major battle of the war: the Battle of Kursk. There had been an enormous buildup of Soviet troops around the Kursk salient—almost a million men, more than three thousand tanks and assault guns, and nearly three thousand aircraft. To hit this concentration of Soviet artillery, Hitler directed General Walter Model's 9th Army to attack from the north, while General Hermann Hoth's 4th Panzer Army drove up from the south. The Germans had at their disposal almost six hundred thousand men, twenty-five hundred tanks and guns, and almost two thousand aircraft. The German attack began on July 5, and the Russian tanks met the advanced German formations flat out. The battle was a devastating one, lasting for a week, but on July 12 the Germans faltered and fell back. In the Battle of Kursk the German casualties were nearly thirty thousand dead and more than sixty thousand wounded.

The Russians were also winning other victories. On August 5, they took the city of Orel to the north of Kursk, and on that same day they took Belgorod 150 miles south. On August 22, the city of Kharkov fell, and a few weeks later Field Marshal Erich von Manstein—who was now in overall command of Army Group South—ordered a withdrawal to the west, with Hitler's reluctant permission. The Russians then moved on to the next objective, the Dnieper River, and they made ten crossings on October 5, rolling on to take Kiev on November 7.



Russian soldiers in their winter outfits advancing against the Germans in 1943. Among the advantages of the Red Army as it drove the Germans from Russia were its winter equipment and its understanding of how to endure and fight in frigid conditions.



Russian women farmers in 1943 escort captured German soldiers into captivity.



Jungle warfare in the Pacific. U.S. Marines advance through the mud of Bougainville in the Solomon Islands on November 4, 1943. The U.S. battle plan in the Pacific was one of island hopping as the U.S. forces captured island after island and moved closer to the Japanese homeland. American servicemen had to fight their way through dense jungles, deep mud, and heavy rains.

The Germans were now steadily being pushed out of Russia, and Stalin and his High Command devised three winter offensives which became known in Soviet history as the "three blows": lifting the siege of Leningrad, driving westward from the Dnieper, and ousting the Germans from the Crimean Peninsula. The first objective was achieved on January 14, 1944, when two Russian armies linked up to drive away the Germans and put them on the run, thus ending the siege of Leningrad which had lasted since the summer of 1941. The second of the Red Army's three blows was launched on Christmas Eve 1943 with a westward drive by three Russian Army groups which moved relentlessly forward, so that by April the German 4th Army had been driven back to the Carpathian Mountains, while farther to the south two other German armies were stranded and in shambles. In the Crimea, General F. I. Tolbukhin's 4th Ukrainian Front attacked Sevastopol, and on May 8 the Germans evacuated by sea, but they did it ineptly and more than twenty-six thousand German troops were left on the beach to be taken prisoner.

By the spring of 1944, therefore, the three blows had pounded the Germans severely, and the mighty Russian advance was underway—an advance which would propel the Red Army directly into the heart of the Third Reich.

THE ASIAN THEATER

China had been officially at war with Japan since 1937 when the Japanese launched a major invasion on the Chinese mainland. A most uneasy coalition between the Chinese Nationalist forces under Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and the Chinese Communists offered strong resistance against the invaders, but by 1939 Japan had conquered most of eastern China and had forced Chiang to move the capital from Nanking to Chungking. That was the situation when Ja-

pan declared war on the United States and Britain in 1941, and thus China became aligned with the Allied nations fighting the Axis.

A major figure in the Chinese theater at that time was the American Claire Chennault, who had been a member of the fledgling U.S. Army Air Service in World War I, and who in 1937 became air advisor to Chiang Kai-shek. In 1941 he began putting together a volunteer group of American pilots who would fight for China against Japan: these 100 pilots were all recent military retirees and they were known as the American Volunteer Group, flying aircraft which bore the insignia of the Chinese Army. However, the AVG was a fiction: Chennault's flying squadron had been authorized and partially financed by the War Department with the full approval of President Roosevelt to fight the Japanese—in clear violation of the Neutrality Act.

Chennault's group—which soon became known by its celebrated name, the Flying Tigers—began aerial operations in late December of 1941, and they only remained in existence as the Tigers for eight months. But what an eight-month adventure it was! The Tigers became a fearless group of pilots who used unorthodox tactics and maneuvers to obtain astonishing results. The official records show that they destroyed 286 Japanese aircraft at the cost of only eight American pilots killed in action, plus four pilots missing, thus becoming the most successful air squadron in World War II. Finally, with America in the war, the Flying Tigers were merged into the U.S. 10th Air Force on July 4, 1942, ending a brief but now legendary episode in military aviation. (After the war, historians exploded the myth of the AVG, recounting that the Tigers had acted at the direction of the U.S. government, but it was not until 1991 that the Pentagon officially acknowledged that the 100 pilots and the 200 crewmen of the Flying Tigers had been on "active duty.")

The Allies' interest in the Chinese theater in 1942 was quite simple, and perhaps quite cynical: to keep China fighting in the war at all costs so it would continue to engage Japanese troops on the Asian mainland and not allow them to be freed for deployment elsewhere. The major problem in supporting this objective was that the Chinese were now in a desperate situation for supplies. The Japanese occupied 40 percent of China's agricultural land, which meant that the Chinese were in vital need of food, but they also needed armaments and materiel if they were to continue to fight against the Japanese invader.

The easiest and most direct way to send in these needed supplies was from India through Burma and then into western China. Burma, which was wedged between India and China, was the natural conduit, particularly the Burma Road, that 681-mile route which had been hacked out through the mountains and jungles. At first the needed supplies for China passed easily from India over the Burma Road, but in early 1942 when the Japanese were on their initial roll of conquests they occupied most of southern Burma, including the Burma Road. Thus, that vital lifeline for China had been closed suddenly and some alternative had to be found, or else China would drop out of the war.

The alternative was an airlift, a 500-mile flight from India to China over the Himalayas, a route which was nicknamed "the Hump." These flights began in 1942 and continued until the end of the war in 1945, using mostly the C-46 Commando aircraft, the largest twin-engine transport used by the U.S. Army Air Force. They took off from Ledo in the Naga Hills of India, flying over mountains which reached to 14,000 feet, and landing in Kunming in the Yunnan Province of China. The Hump was the most treacherous air route in World War II, and many pilots lost their lives flying it, but the flights

continued day after day for three years, delivering those vital supplies to China.

On the ground in northern Burma the Allies also attempted to open a land route from India to China, and thus was created another area of the war: the India-Burma-Chinese theater. In 1942, U.S. Army engineers began constructing a new 500-mile road from Ledo across northern Burma into China, which had to be carved out of the wilderness mile by mile. It would be over two years in the constructing and it was known as the Ledo-Burma Road, although its official title was the Stilwell Road, named for General Joseph Stilwell, the American military commander in the theater. The final section of the Ledo Road was finished in early 1945, just seven months before the end of the war, and it provided a final full avenue of supplies against the Japanese at a time when the Empire was reeling on all sides.

During these ground activities in northern Burma the Japanese were on the attack, and they were met by a coalition of Allied forces: British, American, Indian, and Chinese. These were some of the most brutal jungle battles of World War II, and one of the most celebrated Allied units was the American 5307th Provisional Regiment, the legendary Merrill's Marauders. In 1943, President Roosevelt had issued a call for volunteers for a "dangerous and hazardous" mission, and the result was a 3,000-man regiment of infantrymen under the command of General Frank Merrill. The Marauders reached India in October of 1943, and then marched out into the Burmese jungles where they soon won fame as tough and invincible jungle fighters.

But all these units in the Asian theater—the Flying Tigers, the Hump pilots, the Ledo Road engineers, and Merrill's Marauders—managed to achieve the vital objectives: they kept the Japanese at bay, they continued to ferry sup-



American soldiers of the 7th Infantry fire on Japanese installations during the invasion of Kwajalein Atoll in the Marshall Islands on January 31, 1944. The successful invasion of Kwajalein was an important target because it contained a large Japanese air base.

Two U.S. soldiers from the 7th Infantry take a rest and eat their C rations during the fighting on Kwajalein on February 3, 1944. Note the dead Japanese soldiers lying on the ground.



plies to China, and they sustained the Chinese in the war until the defeat of the Japanese Empire.

THE PACIFIC CAMPAIGN

During 1943 and the first half of 1944 the Allies were implementing their battle plan in the Pacific with the dual tactic of MacArthur in the southwest Pacific and the Navy in the center of the Pacific. MacArthur, with the vital assistance of the Navy under the command of Admiral William Halsey, was able to push slowly but resolutely through the jungle islands in an attempt to remove the Japanese from the area.

The concerned Japanese, fearing where MacArthur might strike next, began moving troops to northeastern New Guinea to reinforce their garrison there, and on March 1, 1943, a convoy of eight troop ships with destroyer escort sailed out from Rabaul, a large Japanese air base on the island of New Britain. The destination was New Guinea, but on March 3 the convoy was intercepted by the U.S. 5th Air Force in what became known as the Battle of the Bismarck Sea. The 5th had just come under the command of the innovative General George Kenny who had trained his men in a new concept of aerial attack: skip bombing. He sent 100 aircraft against the convoy, unrelenting waves of B-17, B-24, and B-25 bombers, which flew in at sea level and dropped 500-pound missiles which skipped across the water like stones before striking an enemy ship. The patrolling Japanese Zeros were flying at high altitudes, looking for the usually high-flying bombers, and they missed the skip bombers at sea level. All of the troop transports in the convoy were sunk, as well as four of eight destroyer escorts, and all of the 6,900 Japanese troops on board were killed. From that point on, skip bombing would become an American tactic and it would be used

to destroy vast amounts of Japanese shipping for the rest of the war.

In addition to the Boeing bombers, the Americans had also introduced in the southwest Pacific the P-38 Lightning fighter which flew at high altitudes and was able to make devastating strategic strikes against major formations of Japanese aircraft by diving down against them. All of this new American fire power began to trouble Admiral Yamamoto, Japan's naval Commander-in-Chief, and the architect of Pearl Harbor, and he decided to visit the Japanese base at Bougainville to inspect the situation for himself. On April 14, 1943, he radioed ahead that he would be arriving at Bougainville in four days, thus beginning one of the more controversial episodes of the war.

As noted earlier, the American Magic had broken the Japanese code, and thus when the coded message about Yamamoto's arrival was intercepted at Pearl Harbor it was quickly decoded by cryptographers who immediately passed it along to Admiral Nimitz, Commander-in-Chief of the Pacific fleet. Nimitz decided to "try to get him," and he contacted Secretary of the Navy Frank Knox in Washington who in turn consulted with Roosevelt; they both approved the plan. At Henderson Field on Guadalcanal, sixteen of the P-38 fighters were outfitted with drop-tanks to give them extra range, and they took off on the morning of April 18 to ambush Yamamoto's plane. The admiral was flying in a small formation of two Japanese Betty bombers escorted by six Zeros, and the P-38s which were flying at their usual high altitude spotted him as his plane was approaching the airfield at Kahil in Bougainville. Swooping down at great speeds, they shot down four of the Japanese aircraft, including the Betty in which Yamamoto was flying.

The death of Yamamoto caused exaltation in the American press, but Churchill was furious when he heard the details of the episode: he fig-



A Japanese Jill bomber receiving fire as it flies in to attack the USS Yorktown during the American raid on Truk in the Caroline Islands on April 4, 1944.

ured that the Japanese could only conclude that this ambush was possible because their secret code had been broken. Which was exactly what they did conclude, and they changed their code immediately, causing American cryptographers a considerable amount of time and difficulty before they could break the Japanese code for the second time. The larger question, however, continued to be debated: Is it morally correct to specifically target for death an enemy commander when he is not in actual battle? The question is still being debated.

In June the Americans easily took the island of Rendova, and the construction of road and gun emplacements for the barrage of nearby New Georgia was begun by the Navy Seabees (a phoneticism for C.B., the Navy's Construction Battalions). On August 5, Admiral Halsey landed 40,000 men on Munda in New Georgia; they dislodged the 10,000 Japanese defenders.

Then, on November 1, Halsey made a surprise landing at Bougainville, putting ashore two divisions of marines and army troops, trapping the Japanese into a jungle defense; and the intense fighting raged through the winter into the spring, so that by the end of April 1944 Bougainville was securely in American hands. The cost of this island victory was 1,000 American and 7,000 Japanese dead.

In the spring of 1944, MacArthur began a concentrated effort to take absolute control of New Guinea, and he sent his forces streaking along 1,100 miles of New Guinea's coast; he took the ports of Sio and Saidor, then the Japanese base at Madung, and finally the old colonial seaport of Hollandia (Djajapura). By the end of August 1944 all of New Guinea was effectively in his hands. Then on September 15 he landed, virtually unopposed, on Morotai Island in the Moluccas. At this point in the south-

western Pacific campaign the Philippines were only 300 miles to the north, where MacArthur had vowed to return after being forced to flee in 1942.

Meanwhile, in the central Pacific the Navy was implementing Plan Orange and they had developed a tactic they called "island hopping" which was based on the premise that it would be too costly and time-consuming to seize each Japanese-occupied island in the Pacific; rather, they would seize key islands which would give

them a stepping stone to attack the next large target, bypassing the smaller islands.

Admiral Nimitz selected as the first step in this tactic the Makin and Tarawa atolls in the Gilbert island chain, and he sent in an armada of 200 ships which carried the entire 2nd Marine Division, plus parts of the 27th Infantry Division—some 35,000 men in all. The landing at Makin on November 20, 1943, was relatively easy, and they cleared the island in three days, but it was a different story on Tarawa where the



U.S. marines throwing hand grenades during their invasion of Saipan in the Marianas in June of 1944.

Japanese fought fiercely, having been ordered to resist to the end. The island was studded with barricades, concrete pillboxes, and gun emplacements, and the Japanese endured for four days until November 27 when the island was finally secured; but only seventeen Japanese surrendered, while the rest—some 4,700 troops and workers—had died defending the Tarawa Atoll. The Americans lost 1,027 marines and 29 Navy personnel; these were the bloodiest four days of the whole Pacific campaign.

In the months ahead other Japanese atolls fell, but the carnage at Tarawa was not repeated; American commanders began using better landing techniques and precision bombing to protect their troops. In January of 1944, the Navy began a series of attacks on Japanese bases in the Marshall Islands. Marines and infantrymen landed on Kwajalein and Majuro on January 31, and subdued the two atolls after a week's fighting. Eniwetok Atoll, 360 miles northwest of Kwajalein, came under American control on February 21.

The main objective in the central Pacific that spring of 1944, however, was a trio of island bases in the Mariana group: Saipan, Tinian, and Guam, which were located 1,300 air miles southeast of Tokyo and would therefore provide airfields for the new American B-29 bombers which would be capable of striking the Japanese homeland from that distance. The U.S. 5th Fleet launched an armada of 535 vessels carrying over 127,000 marines and soldiers, and as the armada approached the Marianas on June 15 it was met by a dwindling Japanese fleet which was easily turned away after losing almost four hundred planes. But the fighting on the islands was much more severe. Marines from the 2nd

and 4th Divisions hit the beaches at Saipan on June 15, and it took them three weeks to secure the island, but the cost was horrendous: there were 16,000 Americans killed or wounded, and the 29,000 Japanese defenders all fought to their deaths.

The fall of Saipan in the Marianas had a profound effect on the morale of the government in Tokyo because people realized that the Americans with their long-range bombers were now a little more than a thousand miles away from the Japanese homeland. The bright promise of early 1942 was now turning sour. Tojo, whose government had been suffering one military defeat after another, could not sustain this latest blow of the fall of Saipan, and so on July 19 he and his cabinet resigned. He was replaced as Prime Minister by the more moderate Kuniaki Koiso, but the new cabinet contained members of the war and navy ministries, ensuring that it would remain under military control.

Tinian fell to the Allies in late July after a relatively easy campaign, and on July 21 Marine and Army forces invaded Guam where after bitter fighting and severe casualties the island was finally secured on August 10. With the Marianas now in control, the U.S. Army Air Force began to build huge and well-equipped bases there for its B-29 bombers, which on November 24 used those bases for the first time in a raid on the Japanese homeland.

By the middle of 1944, the Allied battle plan for the recapture of the Pacific was working successfully: MacArthur was driving the Japanese out of the southwest Pacific; the Navy was island hopping across the central Pacific; and the ring was tightening around Japan itself.

■ LC RESOURCE NOTES

The battles in this period of the war can again be followed in the **COMPUTER CATALOG CENTER** by using the subject heading *World War, 1939–1945* and the subheading *Campaigns*, which contains such headings as *Solomons*, *New Guinea*, *Marianas*, and *Saipan*.

The **EUROPEAN REFERENCE DESK** offers a number of on-shelf books about the Russian campaign in both Russian and English, including the *Soviet Military Encyclopedia* (*Sovetskaia voennaia entsiklopediia*).

The war in the Pacific can be studied in the Naval Historical Foundation Collection in the **MANUSCRIPT DIVISION**, notably in the William Halsey papers which contain war diaries, logs, and narratives of his campaigns in the southwest Pacific in support of MacArthur. The division also contains the papers of Claire Chennault, a remarkable collection of field orders and combat reports about his legendary Flying Tigers. The papers of Joseph Alsop, later an influential journalist but during the war a staff aide to Chennault, provide a rich supplement to Chennault's papers on the air war in China. Ample documentation of the tangled history of China's war role is provided by Owen Lattimore's papers. Lattimore served as a special American adviser to China's Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek in Chungking.

Descriptions of the technology of the war can be found among the three million technical reports in the **SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY DIVISION**. This division contains 30,000 documents of the Office of Scientific Research and Development (ORSD) which chronicle U.S. research on war technology during World War II. There are also the interesting 8,000 documents on the Synthetic Rubber Project, a combined government-industry program about this vital wartime project. The division also contains the technical reports of the National Defense Research Council (NDRC). Fi-

nally, among the captured documents are the German-Japanese Air Technical Documents covering World War II.

The **RARE BOOK AND SPECIAL COLLECTIONS DIVISION** contains the only public complete set of the Armed Services Editions which were published during World War II. The ASE was a combined effort of government and American publishers which published special editions of books, both current and classics, for servicemen overseas. During this project 1,322 titles were published in special editions of flat, wide books which could be carried in a serviceman's pocket; and by the time the project was terminated in 1947 some 123 million copies of ASE books had been produced.

The **MOTION PICTURE, BROADCASTING, AND RECORDED SOUND DIVISION** contains a number of Russian films about Russia's involvement in World War II. *Moscow Strikes Back* is the 1942 American English-language version of *Razgrom Nemetskikh Voisk Pod Moskvoy* (Defeat of the German Armies near Moscow) which contains striking footage of the Red Army stopping the Germans in front of Moscow in December of 1941. This film won a 1942 Academy Award and became a powerful propaganda weapon in the new alliance between Russia and the United States. *Dva Boitsa* (Two Soldiers) is a 1944 dramatic Russian movie which relates the story of two soldiers during the siege of Leningrad. During this period Hollywood continued to release commercial films about the war which are available in this division. In 1943, Warner Brothers released *This Is the Army*, the Irving Berlin picture based on his 1942 Broadway musical. The film version featured 350 active duty servicemen, including a young Lieutenant Ronald Reagan. The year 1944 saw the release of *Winged Victory*, the film adaptation of the Moss Hart play about young men in the Army Air Force being trained to fly the Boeing bombers. But the most

poignant wartime film of that year was *The Fighting Sullivans*, the dramatized true story of the sinking of the cruiser *Juneau* during the battle of Guadalcanal in November of 1942 (see Chapter 3, Island Warfare). On board the *Juneau* were the five Sullivan brothers from Waterloo, Iowa, and when the ship was hit by a Japanese torpedo all five lost their lives. As a result of that episode, the Navy issued regulations forbidding relatives from serving on the same ship. The film was originally released in 1944 as *The Sullivans* (which is the way it is cataloged in this division) but after a slow start it was withdrawn and then rereleased as *The Fighting Sullivans*, becoming an enormous hit and a powerful statement about the tragedies of war. The RECORDED SOUND REFERENCE CENTER of this division contains the *Fireside Chats* of President Roosevelt, those wartime radio broadcasts directed to the American people with his famous trademark aside—"but *you* and *I* know." The division also has the Armed Forces Radio and Television Service Collection, which includes radio broadcasts to U.S. armed forces personnel during the 1942–1945 period. Some of these programs are network commercial broadcasts and others are original AFRTS productions. The division also has the commercial radio programs which Americans at home

were hearing during that period, including the *Abbott and Costello Program*, the *Red Skelton Program*, and *Information Please*.

The MUSIC DIVISION chronicles the wartime music of this period of the war, including the 1943 sentimental patriotic ballad *Say a Prayer for the Boys over There*, originally sung by Deanna Durbin. However, the division also contains one of the most interesting songs of World War II, "Lilli Marlene." Originally written as a World War I poem by Hans Leip, it was set to music by Norbet Schultze and recorded in Germany in 1939. The song soon became the favorite of German troops during the war, and when it was played over German radio to the Afrika Korps in North Africa it was intercepted by the British, who in turn adapted it as a spirited marching song for the British 8th Army. It was also sung in an English version by Marlene Dietrich in the 1944 movie *Lilli Marlene*. The wide wartime popularity of this song is demonstrated by the fact that this division has copies of "Lilli Marlene" in German, English, French, and Swedish.

Finally, the ASIAN DIVISION has some material on the Indian National Army in Japanese-occupied Burma during World War II, mainly in Hindi and Burmese.

THE FINAL WESTERN STRUGGLES 1944 – 1945

THE BATTLE OF THE BOMBERS

One of the key factors in the conflict in western Europe was the air war which pitted the *Luftwaffe* against the RAF Bomber Command and later the U.S. 8th Air Force which operated out of England.

In 1940, when full hostilities began in the west, both sides abstained from employing strategic bombing, that type of aerial attack which targeted cities, factories, and railroads; rather, they used tactical bombing which was air power in support of ground troops and attacks on enemy aircraft and airfields. This mutual constraint—motivated perhaps by the fear of what might be unleashed by strategic bombing—was violated only by Hitler in his bombings of Warsaw in 1939 and Rotterdam in 1940, since he considered those as tactical targets in his campaigns. But, as noted earlier, that all came to a sudden end on the evening of August 24, 1940, when the *Luftwaffe* bombed London in what they said was a mistake. Churchill retaliated with a number of quick bombing strikes on Berlin, and the door was flung open for full strategic bombing by both sides.

The RAF attempted to strike directly at Germany and it bombed Munich on November 8, the anniversary of Hitler's Beer Hall Putsch; the *Luftwaffe* attacked Coventry in retaliation, causing enormous destruction; and then the British bombed Mannheim. During that Blitz Winter of 1940–1941 the *Luftwaffe* attacked London and other British cities, causing widespread destruction; on the night of December 29, 1940, they started 1,500 fires in the city of London alone.

During this early part of the war the Germans were clearly more successful in this campaign of strategic bombing. Flying their Junker, Dornier, and Heinkel bombers, they were able to take off from their airfields in France and make a short flight across the Channel without the necessity of a long flight over enemy terri-



American B-24 Liberators on May 31, 1944, bombing the Ploesti Romanian oil fields which were controlled by Germany. Note the flack from the antiaircraft guns which were firing at the Liberators. This was one of the strategic precision attacks which were aimed at German war production industries.

tory. The British, on the other hand, had to make long flights over France, Belgium, or Holland, which meant that not only did they have to carry heavier loads of fuel but also that they were much more vulnerable to interceptor fighter aircraft, such as the Messerschmitt. In addition, the long-range RAF bombers used in this phase of the war—such as the Manchester and the Stirling—lacked altitude and power, and most critically they did not have the navigational equipment to hit their targets with any degree of consistency.

In 1941, Churchill ordered a buildup of

the RAF Bomber Command, and in February of 1942 Air Marshal Arthur Harris was placed in charge—his appropriate nickname was “Bomber.” He was fortunate because at that time British bombers were coming on the line, particularly the Lancaster and the Halifax, and they were equipped with new navigational equipment, such as a precision-bombing device and airborne radar. Bomber Harris embarked on a series of deep strikes into Germany, and in May of 1942 he ordered the first 1,000-bomber raid on Cologne, the third largest city in the Reich, which burned almost the entire city. Not

only did he now have better planes and navigational aids, but he equipped the bomb loads with incendiaries and containers of high explosives which caused firestorms on the ground. After Cologne, he did the same thing to Essen and Bremen with 1,000-bomber raids.

In the spring of 1942, the U.S. Army's 8th Air Force arrived in England, and another dimension was added to the Allies' strategic aerial attacks on Germany. The RAF had a policy of saturation bombing, and they bombed only at night in order to give themselves greater protection from enemy fighters; but the Americans arrived with a policy, developed a number of years before the war, of pinpoint bombing, and thus they would bomb only in the daytime. The Americans were flying the B-17, which was really only a military version of the commercial Boeing aircraft which had been flown in the 1930s but which had been outfitted with armament and firepower, so that it was called the "Flying Fortress." The B-17 was also equipped with the Norden bombsight, the most accurate optical bombing device to date. However, the problem with the B-17 was that it was too slow and lacked altitude, and it suffered enormous amounts of casualties in its first months of flying, so that the British dubbed it the "flying coffin." The problem was only solved by accompanying the B-17 with fighter aircraft, at first the P-31 and the P-47, and then the famous P-51 Mustang, a heavy long-range fighter with bombing capabilities.

Throughout 1943, the Allies continued their heavy aerial pounding of Germany. In that summer they flew 18,000 sorties to the Ruhr, Germany's industrial heartland, and in July there was a four-day raid on Hamburg which burned to destruction the heart of the major north German port. Similar raids continued on Kassel, Wurzburg, Heilbronn, and Magdeburg. In November the Allies turned their attention to Berlin, and by the next March there had been six-

teen major raids on the German capital. By early 1944, the U.S. 8th Air Force was at full strength in England and under the command of General Carl Spaatz and it began a series of successful precision attacks deep into Germany where it hit aircraft factories and synthetic oil production plants.

By 1944, therefore, the Allies had gained vast superiority in the strategic aerial war with Germany: their mighty military production was in full gear, and they outnumbered the dwindling *Luftwaffe* in the sky. It was by this time that Bomber Harris thought Germany should have been driven into defeat from the sky, a hope shared by Churchill. But it was not to be, and Churchill reluctantly realized that no matter how devastating the Allies' strategic bombing it could not by itself bring the Germans to surrender. And though it was painful for Churchill to contemplate, it became evident that Allied troops had to be placed on European soil if Germany was to be defeated. Furthermore, Stalin was now poised to make his grand push into Europe, and Churchill wanted his troops there to protect the interests of the British Empire.

Thus, in 1944 firm plans were made for a cross-Channel invasion later that spring, and the Allied bombing strategy was changed for those months before the invasion. The major target would now be occupied France, and specifically the French railway system. The reason for this military decision was that all major movements by German troops in France, except for the panzer and motorized divisions, were done by rail, and this included troops, supplies, and heavy equipment. If the railway system in France could be interdicted, then the movement of German troops would be crippled, especially in those first critical days after an invasion when the invasion site is finally revealed and the Germans would want to shift troops and move them up to meet the invaders. Accordingly, Allied bombers unleashed a ferocious attack on the

French railway system in the spring of 1944. Between May 20 and May 28 alone some five hundred locomotives were destroyed, and even more important was the structural devastation of bridges, rail yards, and locomotive repair shops. By the time of the invasion in June French railway traffic had declined to only 10 percent of the January figure—which constituted an eminently successful strategic campaign. This destruction of the French railway system in 1944, while not as dramatic as the bombing of Cologne or Berlin, provided critical assistance to Allied ground troops both before and immediately after D-Day.

OPERATION OVERLORD

By the spring of 1944, a mighty army of 3.5 million men from Europe, Africa, Asia, North America, and Australia had been gathered in Britain, and they were prepared at last to make the cross-Channel invasion. Roosevelt and Churchill had selected General Dwight Eisenhower as Supreme Commander of the Allied Expeditionary Force, and on the other side Hitler had appointed Field Marshal Karl von Rundstedt as Commander in Chief of the Western Front. Eisenhower and his staff made meticulous plans to coordinate troops, ships, and planes in this full assault on *Festung Europa*.

One of the factors which figured largely in the Allies' invasion planning was the memory of the disaster at Dieppe some two years earlier. In August of 1942 troops from the 2nd Canadian Division had made a surprise raid across the Channel at the French port of Dieppe and they were brutally turned back by German defenders. Only 2,500 of the 6,000 largely Canadian troops returned from Dieppe, and this decisive defeat boosted Hitler's confidence in what he called his "Atlantic Wall." But the Allies had learned important lessons at Dieppe,

and they would use them in their planning for the full cross-Channel invasion—which was now known as Operation Overlord. For one, they had made a direct assault on the fortified port of Dieppe, rather than landing on open beaches. For another, there had been no softening-up bombardment. Finally, there was no strong fire support from the sea. Accordingly, on D-Day they would hit an open beach, and there would be aerial support and naval firepower.

A vital part of the preparation for D-Day was the gigantic program of deception which the Allies used to deceive the Germans about where they would land on the French coast. The most logical place to land was the Pas de Calais which had great open beaches and was the shortest and most direct route over from England. And that was where the Allies wanted the Germans to believe they would attempt a landing, because in actuality they had decided to land on the Normandy beaches much farther to the south. To that end, the Allies released and circulated thousands of rumors and false pieces of information, and the French Resistance movement engaged in numerous acts of sabotage in the Calais region to make it appear as if they were preparing for an invasion there.

But the most important act of deception was carried out by General George Patton, performing an assignment which was not to his liking at all. Patton's military career had been in eclipse following two unfortunate episodes that happened during his brilliant campaign in Sicily. Visiting a field hospital, he saw a soldier in bed who did not appear to be seriously injured and he slapped him and called him a coward; and the same episode was repeated with another soldier a week later. Foreign correspondents reported those episodes and they were widely circulated in the American press, causing an uproar at home. Reluctantly, Eisenhower was forced to take away his command and he did

not participate in the invasion of Italy. Patton was still sadly on the shelf as the Allies prepared for D-Day, but his old friend Eisenhower told "Georgie" that if he watched his behavior and did this one job for him in England he would give him a command after the Allies reached France. The job was deception, and Patton was to prepare a totally imaginary force in southeastern England to make the major assault at Calais. The deception was elaborate, and they constructed fake guns and planes and troop camps, and they even created a whole fake system of wireless messages between Patton and headquarters about his coming invasion. The Germans were completely taken in, and one reason the deception worked is that it played squarely into the psychology of the Germans, who could not for a moment believe that

a commander as brilliant as Patton would be held out of this mighty battle merely because he had slapped an enlisted man. So successful was Patton's imaginary army that even after the Allies had landed successfully at Normandy the Germans kept their troops in the Calais area, waiting for what they were sure was to be the main attack by Patton. Patton's make-believe army was surely one of the great examples of ruse de guerre in the long history of warfare.

D-Day was set for June 5, 1944, and weather would be a critical factor in the cross-Channel invasion. If there were storms and it was overcast over the Channel it would make naval maneuvering and amphibious landings very difficult, and most critically it would prevent aircraft from flying, thus depriving the Allies of their priceless air cover. During that May,

D-Day, June 6, 1944. A U.S. Coast Guard landing barge carries American soldiers to the Normandy beaches for the invasion of Hitler's Festung Europa. During wartime Coast Guard vessels operate under the jurisdiction of the U.S. Navy.



southern England was bathed with glorious weather and sunshine, but in the first week of June storm fronts rolled in with fog and high winds over the Channel which drove high breakers onto the Normandy beaches. Reluctantly, Eisenhower cancelled the invasion on June 5, and he studied the weather reports for the next day. His meteorologist told him that there could be a break in the weather late on the 5th, lasting only until the next day. Eisenhower considered the possibility of this small break in the weather, and then he uttered the three words which set this whole plan in operation—"OK, we'll go."

The Allied invasion force which hit the beaches of Normandy at first daylight on June 6 consisted of 5,000 ships carrying 170,000 men, supported by some 10,500 aircraft. It was a coordinated-service attack: aircraft bombed the German installations, paratroopers dropped behind the enemy lines, ships opened up a naval barrage firing 200 tons of shells a minute, and then the landing craft hit the beaches and Allied soldiers poured out. The actual attack area was a fifty-nine-mile stretch of the Normandy coast, and the Allies had divided it into five separate beachheads under different commands. On the eastern end of the invasion area was Sword Beach which was attacked by the British 3rd Infantry Division; next was Juno Beach attacked by the Canadian 3rd Infantry Division; then Gold Beach attacked by the British 50th Infantry Division; next Omaha Beach attacked by the U.S. 1st Infantry Division; and finally on the far west of the invasion area was Utah Beach attacked by the U.S. 4th Infantry Division. The British 6th Airborne Division dropped behind the lines in advance of Sword Beach, and the American 82nd and 101st Airborne dropped behind the lines in advance of Utah Beach.

The time and place of the invasion caught the Germans completely by surprise. Not only were they expecting the landing to take place in the Pas de Calais area, but they were also con-



Three Allied commanders in France on July 7, 1944. From left, American Generals George Patton and Omar Bradley, and British Field Marshal Bernard Montgomery.

vinced that the fierce weather over the Channel that first week of June would make any cross-Channel invasion impossible. Field Marshal Erwin Rommel, whose Army Group B was defending the French coast, was so sure that the weather was on his side that he had left the area to return to Germany for his wife's birthday and he was not even present in Normandy when the Allies landed. Nevertheless, despite the surprise attack, the Germans fought fiercely on D-Day, making the Allies earn their way across the beaches.

Progress was satisfactory for the Allies along all the beachheads, except for the Americans at Omaha where the Germans came closest to hurling the invaders back into the sea. Unlike the other invasion areas which were mostly open beaches, Omaha had high bluffs and steep rock formations from which the Germans fired down on the invaders. For most of the first day at Omaha the Americans remained pinned down on the beach. Elsewhere, most of the other Allied units fought their way off the beaches and moved inland. Troops of the British 50th Infantry Division who had landed on Gold Beach moved on to cut the Bayeux-Caen road, thus positioning themselves to prevent German tanks from coming up and reaching the vulnerable Americans on Omaha.

When night fell on June 6 the Allies were firmly on shore, having landed 152,000 troops and hundreds of tanks. Most decisively, the Germans had not been able to mount a single massed counterattack against the invading forces. What was most consoling to the Allies that day was the amount of casualties: the Allied command had predicted that 10,000 of its soldiers would die on D-Day during the initial assault, whereas only about 2,500 died.

The next day the Allies prepared to drive on and achieve a breakout from the beach area, lest they be trapped there like they had been at Anzio earlier that year. By noon, the 82nd Airborne, which had dropped behind the lines, linked up with forces from Utah Beach and formed a bridgehead nine miles long and eight miles deep. The situation at Omaha began to improve, and the Americans started moving up the beach. To the east, the British 50th now occupied most of the Bayeux-Caen Road, and on the following day they captured Bayeux, the first important town in France to fall.

On D-Day and the days immediately following, the French Resistance came out openly to assist their invading liberators. In the early days

of the German occupation of France in 1940 there had not been much resistance by the French people, but over the years in the face of mounting German atrocities a spirited resistance movement developed, assisted by the Allies who airlifted men and supplies into occupied France. One of the most successful of these resistance groups was the *Maquis* in southern France—named after the thick brush in the countryside where the resistance fighters hid out. There were cells of French Communists all over France but they lay dormant during the first year of occupation and only sprang into action when Germany attacked Russia in 1941. From that point on, resistance groups were mostly categorized as Communist or Gaullist, and they often operated at loggerheads as they began to jockey for position in postwar France. But on D-Day most of the resistance groups came out, sabotaging German troop movements, openly attacking them at times, and doing everything they could to prevent the movement of forces up to defend the Normandy area.

In the days following the invasion the Allied aircraft quickly gained air superiority: they not only controlled the battlefields, but also the approach routes to a depth of 100 miles. The Allies had two quick primary objectives in their breakout: General Montgomery would move the British forces south in France and take Caen, and the Americans would swing around and head back up the Cotentin Peninsula and capture the critical port of Cherbourg. But neither of those objectives was accomplished as quickly as planned. The Americans moved slowly up the Cotentin Peninsula, and on June 12 they captured Carentan, linking up the forces from Omaha and Utah, but they were still nowhere near Cherbourg, whose capture had been planned for D-plus-8. The terrain was easy for the Germans to defend, since it was hedgerow country, a patchwork of thousands of small

fields enclosed by almost impenetrable hedges. The Allies would have to confront the hedge-row all across France. On June 20, they stood outside Cherbourg, but it took six days of siege before the city surrendered, and at the end the Americans had to fight from street to street and from house to house. The Germans had tried to sabotage the harbor, and it took three weeks to clear it, but then the Allies had a major port on the French coast and supplies could be landed in ever increasing numbers.

After the fall of Cherbourg, Field Marshal von Rundstedt at his headquarters in Paris viewed his situation with despair. The Allies would now have an unlimited amount of supplies streaming into France, while his own supplies were dwindling perilously and he was suffering mas-

sive amounts of German casualties. He telephoned the German High Command in Berlin and suggested that they make peace with the Allies, but when Hitler heard of the suggestion he fired him, replacing him with Field Marshal Gunther von Kluge.

Meanwhile the Allied advance continued, and on July 9 the British finally took Caen after an attack by 500 aircraft and an assault by ground forces. Farther to the west the American 1st Army under General Omar Bradley was assaulting Saint-Lô, and on July 17 the city fell. With the capture of Saint-Lô, the Allies were set for a major breakout from the greater Normandy area.

While German forces were retreating in western France another drama was unfolding back

American soldiers proceed along the road to Fontainebleau in August of 1944 en route to the liberation of Paris. The soldier in the foreground is carrying strapped to his back a bazooka—an antitank weapon.



in Berlin: an attempted coup by senior military officers to remove Hitler and then sue for peace. There had always been an uneasiness among the German career military with this former Austrian corporal who was now directing the Wehrmacht, and in the late 1930s there was vague and desultory talk about a military coup, but that all disappeared in 1939 and 1940 with the outstanding success of the German armies in Poland, Scandinavia, and France. The German military became delighted with the Führer's accomplishments, and any consideration of a coup vanished. But by the summer of 1944 the situation had changed radically: the German Army had been bogged down in Russia for three years and was now on the defensive; the German Army in Italy was being driven back up the boot; and another German Army in western France was reeling backward after a mighty Allied invasion.

The plot of a number of senior German officers in July of 1944 was to assassinate Hitler, seize control of the military, and install Rommel as leader, who would then arrange an armistice with the Allies. The actual assassin was to be Colonel Claus von Stauffenberg, who attended a staff meeting with Hitler on July 20 at the Wolf's Lair, the Führer's secret headquarters in East Prussia. Stauffenberg carried a briefcase containing explosives which he left under the conference table before departing, but in his absence the briefcase was moved and when it exploded Hitler escaped with minor injuries. The furious Hitler acted quickly, conducting a major purge among the military which resulted in a number of grisly executions. One victim was Rommel himself, who, although he had not been an active participant in the plot, had agreed at least tacitly to become the German leader after Hitler's death: he was offered the option of either suicide or a humiliating trial, and he chose suicide.

At the end of July General Omar Bradley be-

gan to plan the definitive breakout from the Normandy area. He had under his command one of the outstanding American generals of the war, George Patton, now released from his punishment by Eisenhower and placed in command of the 3rd Army. Bradley told Patton to move out, and Patton took off at breakneck speed with his armored divisions, capturing Coutances on July 28. Patton and his divisional commanders were old cavalry men, raised in the tradition of charging on horseback at full gallop, and they transferred this technique to their mechanized divisions as they raced south through Avranches, dashing eighty-five miles to the southeast and cutting off the Brittany Peninsula. Patton's 3rd Army moved so fast that they often ran ahead of their fuel supplies and out of radio range.

Meanwhile to the north the Canadian 1st Army was moving relentlessly south toward Falaise, and they linked up with U.S. 1st Army units as the German defense began to disintegrate into chaos. The Canadians entered Falaise on August 16, and in the next few days they mopped up the Germans in the area. In the trap of this Argentan-Falaise area the Germans suffered 10,000 men killed, 50,000 captured, and 220 tanks destroyed.

By the middle of August 1944, therefore, the Allies had completely broken out of the Normandy area and had achieved that long-desired objective: a firm and reinforced Western front from which they could push forward into the German heartland.

THE WESTERN FRONT

On August 15 the Allies made a second major invasion of France, this time in the south along a forty-five-mile stretch of the French Riviera. This invasion—which bore the code name Operation Dragoon—was much easier for the Al-



An American hero in France on August 25, 1944: Sergeant Olin Dows, holding a rifle in the foreground. Dows, who came from Rhinelander, New York, spoke fluent German, and when he saw what he thought were a few German soldiers hiding in the brush he ordered them in German to come out with their hands up. Much to his surprise, fifty-six German soldiers came out, their hands in the air, surrendering to the lone American soldier.

lies than the fiercely contested landings at Normandy in the north two months earlier. The landings were preceded by an attack of 1,300 Allied bombers and then a furious naval bombardment, followed by a drop from paratroopers of the American-British 1st Airborne Task Force. The actual landing in the Cannes area of the Riviera was made by 94,000 men of the U.S. 6th Corps commanded by General Lucian Truscott and also by the Free French Forces led by General Jean de Lattre de Tassigny.

Both of these armies, the American and the French, faced minimal resistance in their landings. The task of the Free French—the first major French force to go into action in the homeland—was to turn east and capture the two important ports of Toulon and Marseilles, and by August 28 both those cities had surrendered to de Tassigny. In the meantime, the American 6th Corps raced northwest with its tanks at breakneck speed to take the key city of Montélimar. But the Germans were in rapid retreat



Captured German soldiers receive bread rations from their Russian captors.



The Eastern front, 1944. German soldiers in the trench surrender to the Red Army during the great Russian advance westward to Germany. Note the dead German soldiers on the ground.

and the main force escaped before General Truscott could overtake them, although he did take 20,000 German prisoners who surrendered willingly.

The Allied invasion operation in southern France was successfully concluded on September 11 when the Free French linked up with Patton's 3rd Army at the town of Saulieu, forty miles west of Dijon. The fighting in the south had been nowhere near as severe as the fighting in the north, and in less than a month all of southwestern France had been liberated, almost one-third of the nation. Furthermore, the Allies now had major Mediterranean ports which they could use to channel more men and matériel onto the Continent.

In the north, Eisenhower was faced with another major decision: the fate of Paris, which now lay ahead of his advancing troops. Eisenhower did not want to march in and take Paris, and he gave those instructions to his commanders. For one thing, he did not want his advancing armies to get bogged down in street fighting. More importantly, the Rhine was only 250 miles away and he wanted to continue in hot pursuit of the Germans before they could regroup, thereby bringing a quick end to the war. Militarily, he was correct, but events conspired against him. De Gaulle, who had now landed in France, was pressuring him to take Paris so he could install his government, rather than letting the Communists take over. Churchill, too, was in favor of the capture of Paris as a mighty symbol of liberation. But what decided the issue was what happened in Paris itself on August 19 when Resistance forces called for an uprising and took to the barricades against German soldiers. They also attacked government buildings, and by nightfall the Germans had suffered more than 150 casualties. Over the next few days the violence continued to mount, and Eisenhower reluctantly

decided he had to go into Paris to help the Resistance.

Inside the city another person was deciding the fate of Paris, General Dietrich von Choltz, the city's German commander. A veteran of the Russian front, von Choltz had been given personal and direct orders by Hitler to destroy the city of Paris, to turn it into a western Stalingrad. To that end, explosives had been placed all over the city, under bridges and near buildings and monuments, all waiting to be detonated when von Choltz gave the order. But he was having second thoughts about destroying the beautiful City of Light for no particular military advantage, and the matter was settled for him by a visit from the Swedish ambassador who told him that if he destroyed Paris he would go down in history as one of the great barbarians of all time. Von Choltz ordered the city spared, in defiance of Hitler's orders, and he moved out the greater part of his troops while setting up the others for a last-ditch defense.

At this point Eisenhower made a deft political move. The French 2nd Armored Division under General Jacques Leclerc had landed at Normandy on August 1, and it was now 120 miles from Paris. Eisenhower ordered it to be brought rapidly up and put at the head of the column so that the French would make the initial assault on Paris and liberate the city. On August 24, Leclerc attacked and by 9:30 that evening he had fought his way into the center of Paris. The fighting continued the next day until von Choltz formally surrendered his troops to Leclerc. The following day de Gaulle entered the city and there was a triumphant march down the Champs Elysées while he waved to the jubilant crowds against the background of the singing of the "Marseillaise."

However, Eisenhower wanted to keep his forces moving along the 200-mile front he had established in northern France. He sent Patton's

3rd Army toward the Saar; it rolled through the Argonne Forest and was across the Muse by August 31. General Courtney Hodges's 1st Army crossed into Belgium, encircling the 5th Panzer Army and taking some twenty-five thousand prisoners. The British and Canadian forces under Montgomery were making spectacular gains. During the first week of September the Canadians took the cities of Le Havre, Boulogne, Calais, and Dunkirk. The British 2nd Army took Amiens on August 31, entered Belgium, and captured Brussels on September 3, and the next day a major prize, the port of Antwerp.

Eisenhower had been encouraging Montgomery to move forward quickly because in his path along the coastal areas lay what had suddenly become an imperative new military objective that summer of 1944: the launching sites for the German rocket bombs which were now striking Britain. The first of these pilotless explosive rockets, called V-1, struck London on June 12, just a week after D-Day, and it was followed soon after by the more efficient V-2. (V was the German abbreviation for *Vergeltungswaffen*, revenge weapons, but in Britain they were known as buzz bombs, because the whirring sound of the approaching rocket was the first thing which was heard.) This effective German ballistic weapon was the result of years of advanced rocket research, particularly since 1937 when scientists like the ardent Nazi Werner von Braun established a missile research program on the Baltic island of Peenemünde. This program would prove to be the origin of the successful American space programs of the 1960s when after the war von Braun was brought to the United States and became the developer of the Apollo Saturn launch vehicle at Huntsville, Alabama. But in the summer of 1944 this rocketry was aimed at Britain.

British intelligence had learned of the Ger-

man rocket program earlier, and in August of 1943 Churchill personally ordered a massive bombing attack against Peenemünde. The attack was successful and set the German program back by many months, but by the time of D-Day the Germans had established launching sites along the occupied coastal areas. It was these sites which Eisenhower wanted to knock out. The Canadians seized the V-1 sites in the Calais area in their march up the coast, and the British captured the V-2 sites in the Antwerp area in early September. These and later ground advances by the Allies were critical in crippling what could have been a devastating program against Britain. As it was, the Germans produced 35,000 V weapons, but only 9,000 were fired against England, and of those over 4,000 were destroyed by antiaircraft fire or fighter attack. Nevertheless, V weapons killed 2,500 Londoners during the last year of the war, and Eisenhower later said that if the Germans had been able to launch the rockets a year earlier it would have made a significant difference in the war.

After taking Antwerp, General Montgomery came up with a bold and daring plan to effect a quick end to the war, and he sold it to Eisenhower: he would launch an airborne attack against the Dutch cities of Eindhoven, Nijmegen, and Arnhem, seizing the bridges and establishing a bridgehead across the Rhine. The operation was code named Market Garden and it commenced on September 17 with a massive drop of three divisions of Allied paratroopers into the area. The plan was ill-conceived, and the Allies dropped into heavily concentrated panzer divisions where they suffered massive casualties. The battle raged until September 26, but the Allies were never able to take and hold the critical bridge at Arnhem—"the bridge too far," in Cornelius Ryan's phrase. Finally, the Allies withdrew from the bridge area, having lost 17,000 men dead, wounded, or captured in this

disastrous operation. The Allies did manage to gain a considerable amount of territory in the Netherlands during the operation, but they failed to establish a bridgehead over the Rhine for a drive into the Ruhr. The vision of a quick victory disappeared, and the prospects of winter fighting on the Western front loomed ahead.

THE LAST WESTERN WINTER

Despite the defeat at Arnhem the Allies continued to move forward, so that by the middle of September they occupied the whole of Belgium and Luxembourg, plus a fragment of Holland. On September 11, patrols of the American 1st Army had actually crossed the German border near Aachen, and the Franco-American force from the Riviera landings was now linked with Patton's army. Thus by the middle of September there was an unbroken battlefront in northern Europe running from the banks of the Schelde in Belgium to the headwaters of the Rhine at Basel on the Swiss frontier.

During that autumn of 1944 both Franklin Roosevelt and Adolf Hitler were involved in major events in their own lives. In the United States Roosevelt was running for an unprecedented fourth term as president, despite the worry by insiders that he appeared to be in failing health. The real concern, though, to Democratic party leaders, was the vice-president, Henry Wallace, who seemed to them to be an unpredictable and somewhat dangerous man, particularly in light of Roosevelt's health. Obligingly Roosevelt dropped Wallace from the ticket in 1944, replacing him with Harry S. Truman, a senator from Missouri, a move that would have major historical consequences over the next number of years. The Republicans nominated Thomas Dewey, a former New York City District Attorney and state governor, but in the No-

vember election Roosevelt easily beat him, winning 432 electoral votes to Dewey's 99.

Hitler, for his part, was sitting in his headquarters in East Prussia contemplating the disastrous string of German defeats in the west during the summer of 1944, and he decided on a bold move which would turn the German fortunes around: he would regroup, build up his forces, and launch a major counteroffensive through the Ardennes into Belgium. It would be a repeat of 1940 when he had marched

A somber Adolf Hitler emerges from a staff meeting in late 1944. The Third Reich was now collapsing. The Russians were pushing toward him from the east, and the Allies were coming at him from the west.



through the Ardennes Forest to surprise the Allies and conquer France; and, amazingly, the Allies would be as unprepared for this Ardennes offensive in 1944 as they had been in 1940. Hitler's plan, as he explained it to his military commanders, was to drive a major German force through the middle, splitting the British-Canadian armies to the north from the American armies to the south, thus pinning the British against the sea and creating another Dunkirk. But the major objective of this drive would be to retake Antwerp and reestablish the V-2 rocket bases there. The net result of this bold thrust would be to create a stalemate in the west, a repeat of 1915–1916, but this time he would be able to lob his V weapons into Britain. Then, with the western armies tied down, he could withdraw German troops and send them to the east to meet the growing menace of the advancing Russian armies.

Throughout October and November Hitler began to assemble troops on the German side of the Ardennes—his “last gamble,” as it has been called—and he gathered remnants of his defeated troops in the west, plus new troops he called up from Germany. To head this major offensive, he reappointed General von Rundstedt as Commander of the Western Front, despite his summary dismissal after the fall of Cherbourg. The German buildup was carried on with utmost secrecy; there was radio silence, tanks and vehicles were heavily camouflaged, and troops and supplies moved at night. And it worked: the Allies were caught completely by surprise. The Ardennes attack of 1944 was the major German deception of World War II.

In December, Hitler moved his headquarters to the Reich Chancellery in Berlin, the city where he would spend the few remaining months of his life. “I shall go over to the offensive,” Hitler said, and on December 16 he unleashed his attack. More than 250,000 German troops attacked 83,000 American troops thinly



Red Cross food packages destined for Allied war prisoners stacked in the International Red Cross warehouse at Geneva. Each package contained eleven pounds of canned and powdered food. The Germans allowed only one package a week for each prisoner.

deployed along the eighty-five-mile Ardennes front—the same weak deployment in which the French had been caught in 1940.

The four American divisions holding this front were overwhelmed by the 6th and 5th Panzer Armies which overran them and inflicted heavy casualties. The last great German offensive in the west was underway, and it threatened to rout the Allies in Belgium. As the Americans fell back, their confusion was compounded by a special panzer brigade led by Colonel Skorzeny, who had rescued Mussolini the previous year, which featured German soldiers dressed in American uniforms and speaking perfect idiomatic American English who committed acts of sabotage and misdirection behind the American lines.

It was to be called the Battle of the Bulge, because of the bulging shape of the battle area on the map. At first, the Allies did not believe that

this was a major offensive, but soon it became evident that this was an all-out onslaught. It was also a vicious one as German troops executed captured American prisoners. In one gruesome episode near Malmédy 120 Americans surrendered to SS troops and were then shot to death in a pasture by panzer weapons. It came to be called the Malmédy Massacre, and when news of it spread it galvanized the American troops.

Eisenhower moved quickly to shore up his sagging front. He told Patton to break off his advance into Germany and bring his 3rd Army up to relieve the southern part of the attack area; and in the northern part of the area he placed General Montgomery in charge. Then the damp, foggy December weather broke and Allied aircraft became active in attacking the advancing German troops. But the 5th Panzer Army had crashed through Luxembourg and

was approaching Bastogne, a key junction of highways in the area and therefore an essential target. On December 19 Bastogne was reinforced by the U.S. 101st Airborne Division under the command of General Anthony McAuliffe which had arrived by truck after having driven the 100 miles from Reims at breakneck speed. By Christmas Day Bastogne was completely surrounded by German troops, but McAuliffe refused to surrender and he hung on.

In the north Montgomery's forces had now stopped the German drive, and in the south Patton's armored divisions broke through the lower part of the "bulge" to bring relief to the 101st Airborne at Bastogne. On January 1, Hitler launched a major air offensive over the area which aimed to eliminate the Allied air power which was now proving so devastating. Hundreds of German aircraft were sent over Belgium, Holland, and northern France, attacking Allied airfields. The Germans did destroy a number of bases and 206 Allied aircraft, but it was an almost suicidal venture for the *Luftwaffe* which lost 300 planes and 253 trained pilots. The loss was so great that the *Luftwaffe* never took to the skies again in any major numbers for the rest of the war.

On January 3, 1945, Montgomery launched a major counterattack against the northern and western parts of the "bulge," pushing the German troops back until on January 8 Hitler ordered the withdrawal of the four major panzer divisions from their exposed positions. On January 13 the U.S. 82nd and British 1st Airborne Divisions linked up in what had been the center of the attack area, and by January 16 the original front had been restored with the Germans marching back in retreat.

The Battle of the Bulge was a costly one for both sides. The Americans had suffered 80,987 casualties, including 19,000 killed and 15,000 captured, but the Germans had 100,000 casualties, and the back of the German army in the

west had been broken. Most importantly for the Allies was the fact that their advance had only been retarded for a month, not stopped, and it would now continue on into Germany.

From February 4 to 11, 1945, Churchill, Roosevelt, and Stalin met in their historic conference in Yalta, planning the postwar world, particularly the division of Germany, and that same week the Allies launched their last major offensive in the west. On February 8 a mighty horde of seven Allied armies stretched out along 400 miles of the German border began to move into Germany for the first penetration of the homeland of the Reich during the war. Eisenhower had worked out the battle plan in exquisite detail, and the principal players were Montgomery with his British and Canadian forces in the north, Hodges with the U.S. 1st Army in the middle, and Patton with his 3rd Army in the south.

The immediate objective was to move into Germany and cross the Rhine, which was a formidable barrier. The river itself was swift with swirling currents and it was nearly a half-mile wide in places, but there were hills and rocky crags along both banks, making it a natural moat against attack. The Rhine was also the main artery of travel between southern Germany and the North Sea and thus vital to the movement of troops and supplies. Furthermore, the Rhine River had an almost mystical symbolism in German consciousness as the unpassable frontier to the west, and indeed the Rhine had not been crossed either in World War I or in the Franco-Prussian War of the 1870s. Hitler ordered the Rhine defended at all costs.

The Allies' move into Germany was slow, because of the tenacious resistance of the Germans who were now fighting for their homeland, but it was relentless and unstoppable. They crossed the Roer River west of the Rhine and moved on to take Cologne on the Rhine.



Invasion of the German homeland in the spring of 1945. American soldiers of Patton's U.S. 3rd Army fight their way through Oberdorla, Germany. Note the dead American soldier in the foreground.

The final days of the Italian campaign. Pictured here on March 3, 1945, are American soldiers of the 10th Mountain Division of the U.S. 5th Army as they rest and take cover from German sniper fire up the road in the Castel Aiano area. The Allied Italian campaign had taken a year and a half to inch up the Italian boot and it had exacted tremendous casualties, while the Germans kept large numbers of Allied forces engaged in the Italian peninsula.





The U.S. 3rd Army advances through Wernberg, Germany, on April 22, 1945, in the closing days of the European war.

The Allied armies advanced along the whole front, reaching the Rhine between Wesel and Koblenz and seizing the north bank of the Moselle between Koblenz and Trier. By the first week of March the Allies were poised on the west bank of the Rhine, ready for this critical assault.

Eisenhower's plans for crossing the Rhine conceded the fact that the Germans would destroy all the bridges across the river in the face of his advance. Thus, he had made plans for the use of amphibious craft and the dropping of paratroopers on the other side of the river. But then the Allies got lucky. On March 7, an advance group of the U.S. 9th Armored Division, which belonged to the 1st Army, found an unguarded railway bridge across the Rhine at Remagen below Cologne and rushed across to establish a bridgehead on the other side. The Rhine had been crossed. Then on March 22 Patton's 3rd Army made a surprise attack at Oppenheim farther south and made another crossing. Shortly after, the British and Canadians crossed in the north. With the crossing of the Rhine, the furious Hitler once again fired General von Rundstedt, replacing him with General Kesselring who had been brought up quickly from Italy to repeat the delaying tactics he had employed so successfully in the boot the previous year. But this time it was too late, because the German cause in the west was now lost.

As the Allies began streaming across the Rhine the German front started to break, and German soldiers were surrendering in great numbers to the Allies because of fear of the Russians who were now approaching from the east. The British and Canadian armies pushed on into northern Germany, aiming toward Hamburg. The American 9th and 1st Armies proceeded with the encirclement of the Ruhr, completing it on April 1 and taking the surrender of 325,000 German soldiers. And Patton's army

was embarked on a headlong thrust into southern Germany.

On April 11, the U.S. 9th Army reached the Elbe River, while at Magdeburg the 2nd Armored Division seized a bridgehead across the Elbe, and the next day the 83rd Division established another bridgehead at Barby. The 83rd was now only fifty miles from Berlin and itching to make this final drive against the German capital where Hitler was residing. But at that moment Eisenhower called a halt to the center of his front, much to the consternation of his commanders. Eisenhower's decision to sit tight and not take Berlin was based on a number of factors. For one, the Elbe had been previously agreed upon as the demarcation line between the Soviet and Western occupation zones. For another, Eisenhower feared a needless expenditure of his troops in fighting for this one city, and he had estimates that a direct assault on Berlin might cost an additional 100,000 Allied casualties. Finally, Allied intelligence was reporting that there were sound rumors of the establishment of a German redoubt in Bavaria, a fortified area in the Alps where Hitler would retreat with crack troops and hold out indefinitely. The redoubt was pure fiction, one of the few successful acts of deception by the Germans during the war, but Eisenhower apparently believed it and he sent American and French troops southward into Bavaria to dismantle what proved to be a nonexistent redoubt. He also sent British and Canadian troops northward to clear north Germany. But in the center he held.

Berlin would be taken by the Red Army approaching from the east.

THE RUSSIAN ADVANCE

By April of 1945 the Red Army had been moving steadily westward for ten months as they

crushed the German armies and pushed toward Berlin. The first step in the drive had been along the 450-mile front at Belorussia in June of 1944. Stalin had decided to strike directly at the German Army Group Center and break open the German front in Russia. He called it Operation Bagration and he set the date for June 22, and both the name and the date were significant—Bagration was the name of a Russian soldier who had won fame fighting another invader, Napoleon, and the date was the third anniversary of Hitler's invasion of Russia.

The operation was directed by Marshals Zhukov and Vasilevsky who assembled a major force of 2.5 million soldiers, and they planned a strategy for an encirclement and entrapment of the Germans. Using ground forces, heavy air cover, and bombardment, the Russians crushed through the German lines and caught them in a pincer. It took over two weeks to complete the operation, but by the time of the final mopping up on July 11 Army Group Center had been destroyed and a hole 250 miles wide had been ripped open in the middle of the German line. Twenty-eight German divisions had ceased to exist, and over 300,000 men were either killed or taken prisoner.

With that hole now open Stalin could either push westward toward Poland or he could swing south toward the German-occupied countries in the Balkans. He chose to do both. As soon as the hole was opened the Russians immediately marched through and on July 10 they took Vilna, the capital of Lithuania. On July 27 they took Lvov, the old Austro-Hungarian bastion of eastern Galicia.

The Red Army took Lublin in Poland on July 23, and by July 30 Marshal K. K. Rokossovsky's 2nd White Russian Front was within five miles of Warsaw. There Rokossovsky halted, and one of the most shameful episodes of the war was about to take place. On July 29, Radio



German soldiers taken captive by the Red Army during the final Russian drive toward Berlin. Note the youth of these German soldiers here at the end of the European war.

Kościuszko, run by Polish Communists in the Soviet Union, had broadcast into Poland calling for an uprising against the Germans and promising Russian help. The Polish Resistance—known as the Home Army—responded, and the uprising began on August 1. It was a gallant attempt by the Polish Resistance which fought fiercely against the occupying Germans, but the Russian troops stood immobile and would not move forward to help them. Stalin's motivation for this reprehensible action was sinister: he did not trust the Polish Resistance, which he considered anti-Communist, and he preferred to see it liquidated so that he could later install his own pro-Communist government in Poland. The Germans took this opportunity not only to crush the Resistance but also to destroy Warsaw, and Hitler entrusted this task to SS Chief Heinrich Himmler who performed the task ef-

ficiently. Throughout that fall Russian troops were moving forward along a broad front, but they remained stationary outside of Warsaw while Himmler decimated the city. The resistance formally surrendered on October 2, but even then the Russians did not take the city of Warsaw until early January. By that time the city was in shambles and 200,000 Poles had been killed.

During that fall of 1944 the Russians were advancing along an immense front which stretched from East Prussia in the north to the Danube in the south, and as the Red Army moved forward Hitler's satellite nations in the east began to capitulate. In August, when Russian troops crossed the river Prutt to the delta of the Danube, the Romanians surrendered on the 24th and declared war on Germany. As the Red Army approached Bulgaria it too surrendered on September 5 and later declared war on Germany. Finland, which had become a somewhat reluctant ally of Germany when it marched into Russia, broke relations with Germany on September 2 and signed a treaty with Russia on September 19. In Greece the Germans had been doggedly fighting the Resistance for over a year but in light of the collapse of the Balkans they decided to evacuate the country in late September; and in early October British troops landed in Greece to occupy the country. Stalin sent his 3rd Ukrainian Front into Yugoslavia to help Tito and on October 20 they took Belgrade from the Germans. The fighting against the Russian advance was more severe in Hungary where German panzer divisions put up stiff resistance, and it was not until February 13 that Budapest was finally taken.

Thus, in the half year after Operation Bagration was launched the German presence in the east and the Balkans had been practically eradicated, but most importantly the Russians had not only won military victories but they had staked their claims for the postwar world.

On January 12, Stalin launched his final great offensive against Berlin. From five separate bridgeheads on the Vistula, Russian armies marched north to Danzig, west to the Oder River, and south to Krakow and Breslau, while another army drove toward East Prussia in the north. On January 22, Marshal Konev's 1st Ukrainian Front crossed the Oder River and in the following weeks when Russian troops streamed into Germany en masse the Wehrmacht was in almost complete rout and German citizens were fleeing as refugees to the west to escape the advancing Red Army. By late February the Red Army was within striking distance of Berlin, and the only thing slowing it down was having to wait for supplies to catch up with it.

It was during the time of this final march on Berlin that there occurred one of the most questionable aerial bombing actions of British and American aircraft during the war. On the evening of February 13, 1945, British aircraft attacked the ancient and unprotected city of Dresden in southeast Germany. It was a massive bombing attack, and it was completed the following day during a daylight raid by American bombers who finished off the job. The historic city was practically destroyed, and the report of the number of people killed varies from 100,000 to 300,000. The Allied justification for this brutal raid was that it was done in support of the Russian advance, but that is a specious argument because Dresden posed no military obstacle; the real reason seems to be that late in the war this was a final retaliatory blow for the equally savage raid on Coventry in England in November of 1940.

It was also during that drive that the Russians made a horrific discovery when on January 27 Konev's 1st Ukrainian Front stumbled almost by accident upon what was thought to be a German concentration camp at Auschwitz, but which in fact turned out to be a grisly extermi-

nation camp and one of the main sites for implementing Hitler's attempted genocide of the Jewish people, later to be known as the Holocaust.

THE HOLOCAUST

In *Mein Kampf* Hitler had clearly expostulated his theories of racial superiority and Aryan racial purity, which would be diluted by a Jewish presence in his new Reich. Upon assuming power in 1933 he sought to eradicate the Jews from the new world he was creating. But it would be a mistake to think that Hitler had suddenly converted large numbers to his anti-Semitic thinking; rather, he was playing on an anti-Semitism which had been endemic for centuries, not only in Germany, but also in those eastern European nations which were so eager to participate in his pogroms after he occupied them.

Hitler moved against the Jews from the outset, first by legal decrees, then by persecution, and finally by mass murder; by 1945 he had executed some six million Jews in Germany and the occupied countries. This program of genocide has become known as the Holocaust, and it included not only German Jews but also Russians, Poles, people in the Lowlands, France, and the Balkans, and the gypsies, those nomadic people who drifted across borders and were loved by no country. The total number of people killed in the Holocaust has been given as twelve million—but even that number must be approximate in a horror of this magnitude.

It is also a mistake to state that the world outside the Third Reich was unaware of these atrocities, both in the 1930s and the 1940s. Indeed, the world press was reporting what the Nazis were doing. (See the Resource Notes at the end of this section.) For example, just a few months after Hitler took power the *New York Times* reported on April 23, 1933, of the creation of the

concentration camp at Dachau where dissidents and undesirables were imprisoned under inhuman conditions.

What did happen in the spring of 1945 was that the Allied armies were overrunning the Third Reich and capturing those German extermination camps, thereby seeing first-hand the depravities which no words could ever describe. There were the stacks of corpses, the cadaverous-looking survivors, and the gas ovens and gallows. The Russians took Auschwitz in January, and the U.S. 4th Armored Division took Ohrdruf in southern Germany in April, and others would follow.

But it all began in 1933 when Hitler took power. The Enabling Bill which was enacted after the phony Reichstag fire of 1933 allowed Hitler to ban and retire all "non-Aryans" from the civil service, a small but significant beginning, which was followed over the years by other edicts to deprive Jews of their jobs and property. In 1935, Hitler enacted the Nuremberg Laws which deprived Jews of German citizenship, calling them subjects instead. Other laws banned Jews from most professions and prohibited them from associating with non-Jews.

On November 7, 1938, a young Polish Jew named Herschel Grynszpan assassinated the third secretary in the Germany Embassy in Paris, claiming he did it to avenge the Nazi persecution of Jews. Hitler flew into a rage and ordered reprisals on German Jews. On the night of November 9 the wave of official vandalism broke out in Germany against Jewish homes, stores, and synagogues. It was called *Kristallnacht* (night of the broken glass) during which 7,500 shops and 119 synagogues were wrecked. Some thirty-five Jews were killed, thousands arrested, and a fine of one billion marks was levied against all Jews. *Kristallnacht* was widely reported in the world press.

A few weeks later on November 23, 1938, the *Völkischer Beobachter Berlin*, the Nazi newspaper,



American soldiers in the spring of 1945 take photographs of the corpses in the recently liberated concentration camp at Nordhausen, southwest of Berlin. As each of these concentration camps was liberated General Eisenhower encouraged both the soldiers and the press to take photographs so that there would be a permanent record of the horrendous German atrocities.

said in a leading editorial that the German people had embarked upon "the final and unalterably uncompromising solution" to the Jewish problem. (And it is interesting to note that the ominous term "final solution" appears here in 1938 and not for the first time in the 1940s as is often recounted.)

In 1939, German Jews had to wear the yellow star of David as identity badges, but by then the war had broken out and Hitler was to

unleash the full fury of his anti-Semitism. After Poland was taken, Jews by the millions were herded into concentration camps, there to starve and perish as slave laborers. The mass arrests and mass killings began after the invasion of Russia when German extermination squads—the infamous *einsatzgruppen*—followed behind the Wehrmacht, killing Jews and other conquered people. Ghettos were established, such as the notorious one at Warsaw where almost

500,000 Jews were squeezed into an area that usually housed 10,000. The extermination camps went into high gear, such as the ones at Auschwitz, Treblinka, and Buchenwald, and sophisticated gas chambers and crematoria were created to expedite the execution of massive numbers of innocent people. This lethal persecution of the Jews was extended into all the German-occupied countries, and the Germans were often aided in these pogroms by nationals of those countries. It happened in Poland, Russia, the Balkans, Italy, France, and the Lowlands. And it continued right up to the very end of the war. It is tragic to note that the now-celebrated Dutch-Jewish teenager Anne Frank was taken prisoner by Germans in Amsterdam in August of 1944 at a time when the Allied forces were already on the ground in Europe and moving northward, a time when German soldiers might better have been fighting the advancing military rather than arresting a teenager because of her race. (Anne Frank died in the concentration camp at Belsen.)

After the Americans had taken Ohrdruf, the first death camp to be liberated by the western Allies, Eisenhower himself visited the place, and he was shocked and outraged by what he saw. He immediately sent cables to Washington and London, urging journalists and legislators to come and view first-hand the horrors he had seen. From that point on, dozens of reporters and photographers accompanied the troops into each newly discovered camp. CBS correspondent Edward R. Murrow rode with the U.S. 3rd Army into Buchenwald, and *New York Herald Tribune* reporter Marguerite Higgins reached Dachau with the first Allied troops. This media coverage in 1945 of the horrors of the death camps could not, of course, undo the misery of Hitler's thirteen-year pogrom against the Jews, but it did create a grim and lasting record of one of the largest and most protracted atrocities in history.

THE COLLAPSE OF THE THIRD REICH

The twelve-year Third Reich collapsed in the month of April 1945.

By the month of April Hitler was holed up in the *Führerbunker*, that nineteen-room underground compound he had built under the Reich Chancellery in Berlin at the end of 1944. The bunker was a self-contained unit with a sixteen-foot concrete roof which made it virtually impregnable to the bombs which were raining on Berlin daily. Hitler had moved into the underground bunker on January 16, the day of the final failure of the Battle of the Bulge and at a time when his armies in the east were in full retreat from the Russians. Hitler did not leave the bunker for the remaining 105 days of his life, except for a few occasional hours above ground, and from there he directed the final days of the Reich. Thus, underground, the Führer would work out his *Götterdämmerung*.

At first, he was accompanied in the bunker only by his personal staff and physicians, but by April his mistress Eva Braun had moved in, as well as Joseph Goebbels and his wife and children. Hitler held daily military briefings in his underground hideaway, and he would rant and rage at his generals, complaining of the cowardice and treachery of his commanders in the field who were being pushed back on both fronts. At this late stage of the war Hitler failed to admit that the Wehrmacht was simply being overwhelmed, both by the superior manpower numbers of the Allies and by their prodigious production of matériel which was now in high gear.

Hitler's only moment of glee in the bunker during that April came on the 12th when the shocking news was flashed around the world that President Franklin Roosevelt had suddenly died of a cerebral hemorrhage at his vacation retreat in Warm Springs, Georgia. The new American president was the virtually unknown

senator from Missouri, Harry S. Truman. Hitler was ecstatic, seeing in the death of Roosevelt some almost mystical portent of a change in his fortunes. Furthermore, he thought that this event would bring an end to the coalition between the Russians and the Americans. To almost his last days, Hitler entertained the unrealistic hope that an armistice could be obtained with the western Allies who would then turn and fight with him against the Russians.

Armed with a new enthusiasm, Hitler told his commanders that Berlin must now be defended at all costs so that the Reich might survive, even though he did not know from which

side the attack would come. But General Helmuth Reymann, the city's commandant, was in despair at having to defend Berlin with so few troops, many of which were now the Hitler Youth and the old men of the *Volkssturm*. The main force defending Berlin against attack from the Russians was Army Group Vistula, commanded by General Gotthard Heinrici, consisting of 320,000 men and situated to the east in the area between Berlin and the Oder River.

Arrayed against this defending force was a massive buildup by the Russians along the Oder some fifty miles from Berlin during March and early April. By the time of the attack the Russians had almost three million troops along

The German surrender on May 7, 1945, at General Eisenhower's headquarters in Reims, France. In the center signing the surrender is General Alfred Jodl. To his right is his aide Major Wilhelm Oxenius, and to his left is Admiral Hans-Georg von Friedeburg. Eisenhower demanded and received an "unconditional surrender." The Third Reich of a thousand years had lasted just twelve years.



the Oder, plus guns and shells and thousands of aircraft. The Russian battle plan was for Marshal Zhukov to take his 1st White Russian Front straight across to Berlin, while Marshal Ivan Stepanovich Konev's 1st Ukrainian Front attacked from the south, and some of his forces moved toward the Elbe to link up with the Americans who were now held up and waiting.

While the Russians were building up their forces for the attack on Berlin, other Russian forces to the south were in the process of retaking Hitler's initial conquest made back in 1938. General F. I. Tolbukhin's 3rd Ukrainian Front had marched into Austria, and on April 6 it arrived at the suburbs of Vienna. The German defenders resisted fiercely and there were point-blank artillery duels and street fighting. Finally, the surviving Germans fled the city on April 13, leaving behind a greatly devastated Vienna.

At 5:00 A.M. on April 16 the Russians launched their assault on Berlin. Zhukov's forces let go with a mighty barrage of almost 17,000 field guns, mortars, and rocket launchers, and then the troops rolled forth. The Russians moved out quickly, but Army Group Vistula had taken up defensive positions in the Seelow Heights of the Oder Valley and there it put up an unexpectedly stiff resistance, slowing down the Russians. Zhukov had expected to move quickly into Berlin but the Germans were thwarting him, fighting every step of the way, and the Russians would experience grievous losses in their assault on Berlin. In fact, it would take two weeks to capture the city, not the matter of days that Zhukov had planned.

By April 19, Zhukov had cracked the outer line of German defenses and pushed through. The next day he reached Bernau, just ten miles from Berlin, and he began the bombardment of the streets of the city. On the 21st he had advanced to the northern suburbs of Berlin, and then Konev began moving up from the south to

join in the final assault. Thus, by April 25 Russian forces under Zhukov and Konev had succeeded in encircling the city from the north and the south.

That same day an historic event was occurring near the Elbe River on the other side of Berlin from where the Russians were attacking. A patrol of the American 1st Army's 69th Division was in the area near Torgau when they found what they were looking for, a group of soldiers in unfamiliar uniforms, actually break-off troops from the 1st Ukrainian Army. After the Americans identified themselves, there were handshakes and backslapping and endless toasts of Russian vodka. This was the linkage of American and Russian troops. The Allied western and eastern fronts had now been joined, and the lock against Hitler was complete.

During those latter days of April while the battle still raged in Berlin other German armies far from Berlin also began to fall. Far to the north, the Allies were finishing off the Germans in Holland. When the Allies had swung into position earlier in February to make their assault on the Rhine they had bypassed large parts of Holland, but now in April they began to mop up. The Canadian 1st Army had driven into Holland, and by April 20 had bisected the Germans' Netherlands command and trapped the Germans against the North Sea near Amsterdam.

Far to the south, the long and grinding Italian campaign was finally coming to an end. After the German retreat from Rome in June of 1944, Kesselring had pulled his forces into a succession of defensive positions, using the Italian terrain, which stalled the Allies and inflicted great losses on them. The Allied advance in Italy was further impeded in the summer of 1944 when large numbers of troops were withdrawn to participate in the landings in southern France. Kesselring then withdrew behind what

he called the Gothic Line, and he maintained it for many months. To that extent, Kesselring's command was the most successful German action in the latter part of the war because he had done precisely what he had been ordered to do: he kept the Allies bogged down on the Italian peninsula, tying up great numbers of soldiers, and he had caused them massive amounts of casualties.

But in the spring of 1945 the Allies started to make progress in northern Italy, particularly after Kesselring had been reassigned to try and save the Western front. The American 5th Army sliced through the Gothic Line on April 14 and drove to Bologna, and on April 20 they broke into the Po Valley plain. A day later they linked up with the British 8th Army, as the German armies fled in disorder and retreat.

The Allies were aided in their northern advance by the now active Italian partisans, some fifty thousand strong, who were sabotaging the Germans behind their lines. One group of partisans ambushed a convoy of trucks near Lake Como and found inside one of the trucks the disguised Benito Mussolini who was trying to escape. They took him prisoner and the next day they shot him and his mistress, Claretta Petacci. The two corpses were then hung by their heels in a square in Milan.

A few days later, on May 2, General Karl Wolf, who was now commander of German forces in Italy, officially surrendered his troops to the Allies.

Back in Berlin the Russians were closing the trap so that by April 27 the area of the city which was still in German hands had been reduced to a strip which was some ten miles long and three miles wide. By April 29, the fighting was less than a quarter of a mile from the Reich Chancellery, and Hitler in his underground bunker below could hear the shells exploding above.

Hitler had ample opportunity to escape Ber-

lin in the weeks preceding the Russian assault and this escape remained open to him even after the Russians had entered Berlin, but he elected to remain in his bunker, choosing the traditional Prussian way that a military commander acknowledges defeat. The news of Mussolini's execution and final humiliation stiffened him in that resolve, and he determined that would not happen to him. On the 28th, in a macabre ceremony, he married his long-time mistress Eva Braun, and the following day he wrote out his last will and final instructions, appointing Admiral Karl Dönitz as head of state.

On the afternoon of April 30, Hitler retired to his private quarters where he administered a cyanide capsule to Eva Braun and then shot himself. Following his instructions, the two bodies were carried up to the Chancellery garden where they were placed in a shell hole, doused with gasoline, and incinerated. Late that bizarre afternoon, Magda Goebbels administered cyanide to her six children, and then she and her husband Joseph both took cyanide capsules.

The fighting in Berlin continued for another day, and then early on the morning of May 2 the Germans requested a cease-fire. General Karl Weidling was brought to the headquarters of General Vasily Chuikov—the same Chuikov who had resisted the siege at Stalingrad—and there the Germans surrendered Berlin. That afternoon, Russian guns ceased to fire, and Soviet troops began cheering and shouting and celebrating. But the cost of the battle for Berlin had been heavy for both sides: some 125,000 Berliners lost their lives in the siege; and the Russians had lost 304,887 soldiers killed, wounded, and missing—far in excess of the losses Eisenhower had predicted for his own forces if he had stormed Berlin.

Grand Admiral Karl Dönitz, Hitler's appointed successor, was the Commander-in-

Chief of the German Navy and the architect of the U-boat operations during the war. When he received news of Hitler's death and his appointment as head of the Reich he was at his headquarters at Plön in Schleswig to the north, which had not yet been overrun by the Allies. Dönitz's regime was to last for only a few days and his basic tactic was to delay the inevitable German surrender so that as many German troops as possible could flee westward and surrender to the Western Allies, rather than to the feared Russians. In the few days after the fall of Berlin over two hundred thousand German troops streamed into the American and British lines.

Eisenhower sent an ultimatum to the Germans, demanding an unconditional surrender and a surrender to *both* the Russians and the Western Allies. Accordingly, Dönitz commissioned a team of German officers under General Alfred Jodl to approach Eisenhower and ask for terms. The German team journeyed to Eisenhower's forward base in the French cathedral town of Reims, and there in a red brick schoolhouse they met the Allies on May 6. Jodl tried to vacillate, asking for terms and a delay, but Eisenhower was adamant: there must be an im-

mediate unconditional surrender, or else he would close the Western lines against the fleeing German soldiers and leave them to the Russians.

Jodl radioed Dönitz that he had no alternative but to sign a surrender, and the Admiral reluctantly agreed. Early on the morning of May 7, Jodl signed the German surrender. General Walter Bedell Smith signed for the Western Allies, and General Ivan Susloparov signed for the Soviet High Command.

After Jodl and his team had departed from the schoolhouse at Reims, Eisenhower had one last wartime task: he had to officially inform the Combined Chiefs of Staff of the German surrender. He was surrounded by his staff and associates, including General Smith, who offered him all kinds of advice about the phrasing of this historic message. There were suggestions of grandiloquent phrases about a mighty victory and a righteous cause, and Eisenhower listened quietly, but in the end he thanked them and said he would dictate his own message.

Eisenhower's victory message from Reims was a masterpiece of succinctness and exactitude—"The mission of this Allied force was fulfilled at 0241 local time, May 7, 1945."

■ LC RESOURCE NOTES

The complex military operations of the last two years of the war in Europe are clearly delineated in one of the maps in the collections of the GEOGRAPHY AND MAP DIVISION. This large map, which measures 35 by 46 inches, was published in Switzerland by Kümmerly and Frey after the war, and it clearly shows the battle movements, depicted by flow lines and arrows. The map—which is titled “Campaigns of Europe 1939–1945”—covers D-Day and the new Western front, plus the Italian campaign, as well as the Russian advance on Berlin. Other maps in this division show the final alignment of countries in Europe in 1945, which stands in marked contrast to the dimensions of the Third Reich in 1941. Another interesting item in this division is a folio called “Plans for Berlin,” which contains maps, drawings, and diagrams for the new Berlin Hitler planned to create after the war—a project that, of course, was never accomplished. The plan was drawn up by Albert Speer, a gifted young architect whom Hitler had sponsored as his protégé. During the war Hitler appointed Speer as his Armaments Minister in charge of war-time production, but after the war Speer was arrested and convicted at Nuremberg as a war criminal because he had used slave labor. Speer served twenty years in prison at Spandau.

The final battles in Europe can be studied in the COMPUTER CATALOG CENTER, specifically under the subject heading World War, 1939–1945, and then the subheading Campaigns, which lists, for instance, seventy-three items under Normandy. Other campaigns for this phase of the war include France, Italy, Poland, and Russia. Another subheading in this category is Holocaust, Jewish, 1939–1945. Yet another subheading lists bibliographical items about Concentration Camps, listed by country.

The MANUSCRIPT DIVISION houses the 25,500 items in the papers of General George Patton, and of particular interest are the documents about the

Battle of the Bulge. Patton was reluctant to break off his march into Germany to assist in the Bulge, but he did as ordered and he relieved the siege at Bastogne. Another item in the collection is a copy of the D-Day prayer which Roosevelt read over the radio on the evening of June 6, 1944. The prayer is signed by Roosevelt himself, and it is one of 100 copies which he had printed and signed as Christmas gifts in 1944. The prayer reads in part: “Give us faith in Thee; faith in our sons; faith in each other; faith in our united crusade.” The collection also includes a short typescript by Dwight Eisenhower titled “Summary of Operations in Northwest Europe.” The papers of Generals Henry (Hap) Arnold, Ira Eaker, and Carl Spaatz document the creation of the U.S. Army Air Force and the development of the strategic bomber campaigns.

The RARE BOOK AND SPECIAL COLLECTIONS DIVISION contains an article from the *New York Times* which is based on the Eisenhower typescript. Published on May 5, 1966, the article is titled “Allied Forces,” with the subtitle “The War in Three Pages,” and it recounts Eisenhower’s victorious campaign in Europe.

The SERIAL AND GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS DIVISION contains ample material in its newspaper collections to refute the myth that the fact of the Holocaust was not known outside of Germany until after the war. As recounted above in the text, the *New York Times* in April of 1933 presented a first-hand description of Dachau. That same year the *Times* also ran a series of stories about anti-Semitism and the persecution of the Jews in Nazi Germany. The *Times* reported the Nuremberg rally of 1936 where details of the “final solution” were given, which were followed by a number of editorials in the same newspaper. The story of *Kristallnacht* in 1938 was widely reported in the American press in such papers as the *Hartford Courant*, the *Buffalo Courier-Express*, and the *St. Paul Dis-*

patch. This collection contains the November 23, 1938, edition of the *Völkischer Beobachter Berlin* which, as recounted above in the text, reports about the German people embarking on the "final solution." The *New York Times* for October 28, 1941, ran a first-hand report from Berlin about carloads of Jews from Berlin being deported eastward, and it concluded that the "complete elimination of Jews from European life now appears to be fixed German policy." After America entered the war, the *New York Times* ran a story from Lisbon on May 18, 1942, which said that the Germans killed more than one hundred thousand Jews in the Baltic states, another one hundred thousand in Poland, and over two hundred thousand in captured Russia. By December of that year the *Times* was saying that two million Jews were already dead, and over five million more were facing extermination.

Among the holdings of the MOTION PICTURE, BROADCASTING, AND RECORDED SOUND DIVISION is the captured German film *Der Ewige Jude* (The Eternal Jew), a full-length anti-Semitic film which was widely shown in Germany as propaganda. The division also has U.S. newsreels of the period which show what Americans at home were seeing about the war, principally *Universal Newsreel* and *News of the Day*, but also copies of *Paramount News* and *Movietone News*. Among the more interesting Russian films of this collection is *Kino-dokumenty O Zverstrakh Nemetsko-Fashiski Zakhvatchikov* (Cinema Documents of the Atrocities of the German-Fascist Invaders). This 1945 film was presented by the Russians at Nuremberg to docu-

ment accusations by the USSR against the Germans, and it shows grim footage of the atrocities committed by the Germans in Russia as well as at Maidanek and Auschwitz. The Recorded Sound Reference Center of this division contains voice recordings of the wartime broadcasts of Lord Haw-Haw and Axis Sally, those two renegades who broadcast Nazi propaganda from Germany aimed at the Allies. Lord Haw-Haw was William Joyce, an Irish national who was captured by the English after the war and executed on the basis that he was a traitor because he had been traveling on a British passport. Axis Sally was Mildred Gillars, an American, who was also captured and sentenced to twelve years in jail after the war for her wartime propaganda broadcasts from Germany.

The ARCHIVE OF FOLK CULTURE, which is part of the Library's AMERICAN FOLKLIFE CENTER, contains an abundance of material about the lives of ordinary Americans in the United States during World War II. Among the 45,000 hours of audio recordings in the Archive are man in the street interviews by Alan Lomax and several other folklorists in which they ask people how they feel about President Roosevelt's declaration of war and the early war effort. There are also recordings of African-American World War II songs, GI songs, choral arrangements, and the music of the indigenous cultures of the Pacific theater. The Archive also houses a collection of Office of War Information research material about the spread and classification of wartime rumors, as well as anecdotes told by Americans about the war.

THE LAST PACIFIC BATTLES

1944 – 1945

THE RETURN TO THE PHILIPPINES

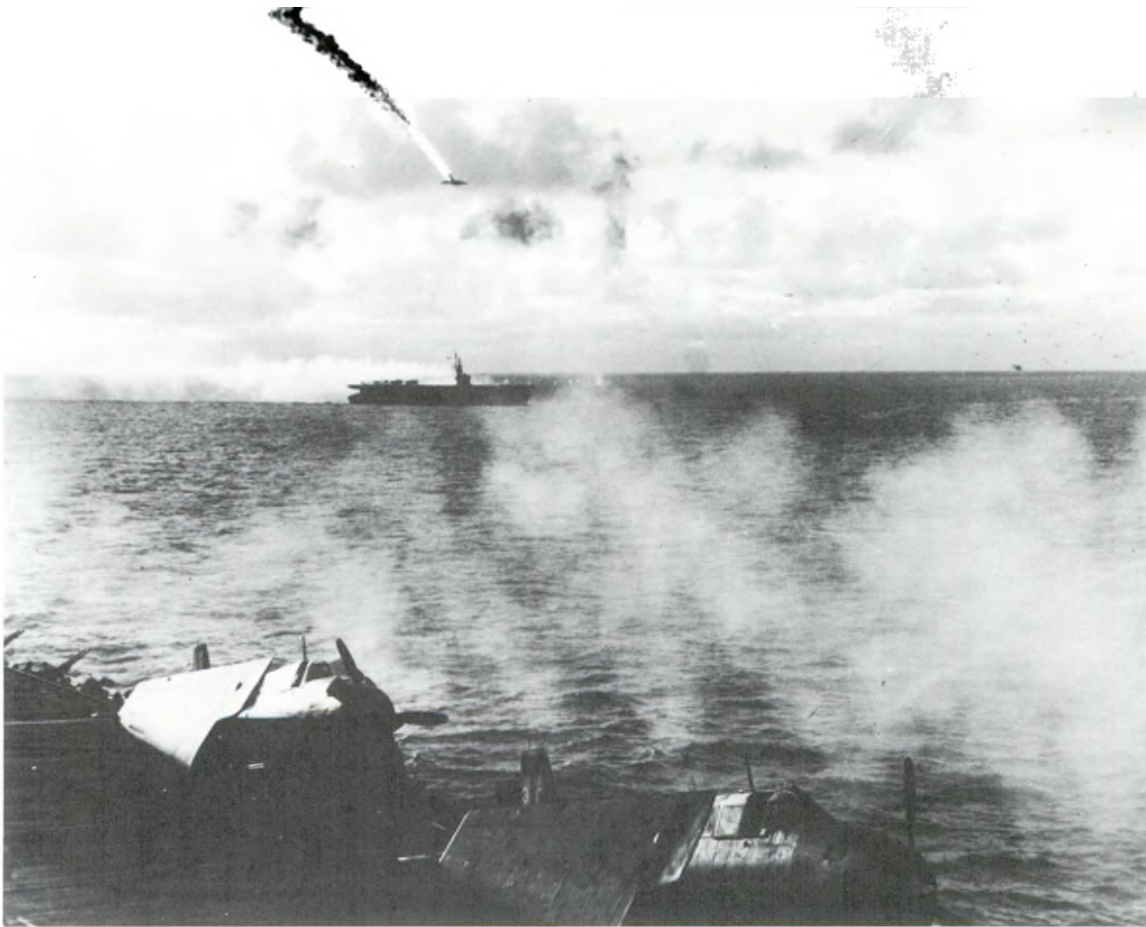
When General Douglas MacArthur fled from the Philippines in March of 1942 he had pledged to return, and in the fall of 1944 he began to redeem that promise.

On September 15 of that year U.S. marines landed on the island of Peleliu in Palau. Then American army troops attacked Morotai Island in the Netherlands East Indies. The conquest of these two islands placed the Allies within 400 miles of the Philippines, which could then become staging areas for an invasion of the Japanese homeland.

The Philippine archipelago consists of more than seven thousand islands stretching over one thousand miles from the large island of Luzon in the north to the other large island of Mindanao in the south. The Japanese tried to anticipate where MacArthur would attack the Philippines, but MacArthur outfoxed them, just as Eisenhower had fooled the Germans a few months earlier in the cross-Channel invasion of France. General Tomoyuki Yamashita's large 14th Area Army was on the island of Luzon in the north, building defenses against what they thought would be an Allied assault of the island and its prize, the city of Manila. Instead, MacArthur had decided to land on the smaller island of Leyte in the middle of the archipelago.

The task force approaching Leyte included Admiral William Halsey's 3rd Fleet and Admiral Thomas Kinkaid's 7th Fleet, and on October 20, 1944, the U.S. 6th Army landed virtually unopposed on the east coast of Leyte. Five hours after the first landings, MacArthur and his staff waded ashore at Tacloban, and he made his dramatic statement: "I have returned."

If the Japanese Army was fooled by the invasion of Leyte, the Navy was not and it made immediate plans to trap the large Allied navy as it steamed into Leyte Gulf. Admiral Soemi Toyoda, Commander of the Japanese fleet, made a



A Japanese kamikaze suicide plane is shot down before it can hit the USS Kitun Bay during the Battle for Leyte Gulf in late October of 1944. The Leyte Gulf was an integral part of the successful American invasion of the Philippines to retake the islands from the Japanese. The decisive American naval victory in the Leyte Gulf marked the end of the Japanese fleet in the Pacific during World War II.

crucial decision to commit the majority of what was left of the Japanese Navy to this last-ditch effort to destroy the U.S. fleet in the Pacific. The ensuing battle—which would be known as the Battle for Leyte Gulf—would involve 282 warships and would be the largest naval battle in history. It would also be the last major naval engagement of the war.

The frenetic Battle for Leyte Gulf lasted only three days, and it began on October 23 when Admiral Takeo Kurita's 1st Attack Force sailing toward Leyte was intercepted and damaged by U.S. submarines. In the ensuing battle between Kurita and Halsey's 3rd Fleet both sides took losses, but the Japanese absorbed the greater amount and they withdrew. Halsey sailed on, trying to engage the carrier force commanded by Admiral Jisaboro Ozawa which was reported to be 150 miles to the north.

This hunting action by Halsey left the San Bernardino Strait unprotected, and Kurita swung his 1st Attack Force around and sailed through the San Bernardino Strait. At the same time Admiral Kiyohide Shima's 2nd Attack Force and Admiral Shoji Nishimura's Force C were charging up from the south toward the Surigao Strait to take the Leyte landing force from the rear. It was an all-out three-pronged attack, and only Kinkaid's 7th Fleet was there to defend the strait. On the night of October 24-25 the 7th Fleet's modern radar picked up Nishimura's ships in the Surigao Strait and opened fire. Four Japanese destroyers were sunk, as well as the battleships *Fuso* and *Yamashiro*. Both Japanese forces, damaged severely, then retreated from the Surigao Strait.

It was during this Battle for Leyte Gulf that the U.S. Navy first experienced what was to be

a terrifying phenomenon for the rest of the war: kamikazes. The idea of kamikaze (divine wind) suicide aircraft was formulated just before Leyte, and on October 25 the *USS St. Lô* took a direct hit from a kamikaze and sank. The pilots in these suicide planes flew Zero fighters equipped with 550-pound bombs and they dove them directly into Allied ships. These suicide pilots had pledged their lives for the Empire, and the Japanese always had an overabundance of young men who wanted to volunteer for a kamikaze mission. The kamikazes were extremely difficult to defend against because these minimally trained pilots took no evasive actions, and for the remaining ten months of the war they would exact a heavy toll on Allied vessels.

When Kurita's Force sailed through the San Bernardino Strait Admiral Kinkaid frantically radioed Halsey to break off and come back and help him. Halsey had by this time caught up with the carrier force, sinking Ozawa's flagship *Zuikaku* and the light carriers *Chitose* and *Zuiho*, but he now quickly turned around and sailed back toward Leyte. But by this time Kinkaid's 7th Fleet was already encountering Kurita's Force. American aircraft took off from their carriers and made repeated air strikes and torpedo attacks against the Japanese. In the face of this spirited defense and the news that Halsey was now coming up behind him, Kurita turned and sailed out through the San Bernardino Strait, fearful that otherwise he would be trapped between the two American fleets.

The Japanese had been repulsed and defeated, and the Battle for Leyte Gulf was over. Not only had it been a victory for the U.S. Navy, it was also one of the most decisive battles in naval history. The Americans had lost two destroyers and four other ships. But the Japanese had lost four of their remaining carriers, three battleships, six heavy cruisers, four light cruisers, and nine destroyers.

While the Navy was defeating the Japanese at sea, General Walter Krueger's 6th Army on Leyte was consolidating its position and preparing to drive inland, but it would be a protracted campaign. The Japanese were determined not to allow the Allies a major foothold in the Philippines and they began pouring in major reinforcements to shore up the small garrison there. Krueger began fighting his way across the island, meeting stiff resistance from the Japanese, and then being bogged down by an unusually heavy monsoon that transformed the area into a quagmire.

By December Krueger had reached Ormoc, the main Japanese concentration on Leyte, and on December 10 he attacked. A long artillery bombardment preceded the attack, and then landing craft with rocket launchers swept into Ormoc Bay, sending their high-explosive missiles crashing into the town center. Ormoc fell, and with that the Battle for Leyte Gulf was effectively over. Japanese casualties totalled 60,000, while 3,500 Americans were killed during the campaign. MacArthur later said that the Leyte battle was "perhaps the greatest defeat in the military annals of the Japanese army."

The main objective in the Philippines, however, was the large island of Luzon with its major port at Manila, and once Leyte had been cleared MacArthur moved Krueger's 6th Army north for the assault of Luzon. The invasion of Luzon was a multiple-assault offensive, and it began in early January 1945 when the 6th Army set sail from Leyte in an 850-ship fleet headed for Lingayen Gulf to the north of Manila. On the way in the fleet was repeatedly attacked by kamikaze planes which seriously damaged eleven vessels and killed hundreds of U.S. servicemen. But the fleet sailed on, reaching Lingayen where 70,000 troops of the 14th Corps and the 1st Corps streamed ashore on January 9.

The troops at Lingayen landed virtually unopposed, and they quickly moved south toward

Manila. This was all part of the defensive plan of General Yamashita and his strong 14th Area Army. His tactic was to fall back to the mountainous area near Clark Field and there tie up the advancing enemy. Yamashita realized that MacArthur's main objective in the Philippines was to take the harbor at Manila so he could use it as a staging area for an invasion of the Japanese homeland. He also realized that he had no hope of ultimate victory in the Philippines against the larger American force, but like Kesselring before him in Italy he wanted to delay the Allies as long as possible. However, he was not nearly as successful as Kesselring had been in Italy. The Japanese put up a vigorous defense north of Clark Field, but by January 30 the Americans had taken the Field.

Meanwhile, to the south of Manila two other landings were underway. On January 29, some forty thousand men of the 11th Corps came ashore unopposed at San Antonio west of Manila. And on January 31, 8,000 men of the 11th Airborne Division came by boat to Nasugbu Bay south of Manila. These two forces pushed in against Manila, so that by early February the city was being attacked from three sides.

On February 3, troops from the 14th Corps made the first entry into Manila, but it would take another month to subdue the city, which was being defended by 20,000 naval troops under Admiral Sanji Iwabuchi who was determined to fight for every inch of Manila. The Japanese hid in Manila's extensive tunnel system, used the walls of the old city for protection, and engaged in block-by-block fighting. It was not until March 3 that the battle for Manila came to an end.

By that time MacArthur had effective strategic control of the Philippines. Over the next many weeks he would clear out the Japanese on the other islands: he easily cleared the Visayan islands, but there was bitter fighting on Mindanao. And some Japanese troops which took to

the hills would never be captured until the end of the war in August. However, the Allies now had the Philippines and a major port from which to invade Japan.

There only remained two small strategic islands between the Philippines and the Japanese homeland: Iwo Jima and Okinawa.

THE LAST ISLANDS

Iwo Jima (Sulfur Island) was only eight square miles of rock, but it was located 660 miles southeast of Tokyo on the direct invasion route to Japan and, when captured, it would make an excellent base for U.S. fighter aircraft. The invasion of Iwo Jima was preceded by intense bombing by B-24s and B-29s from the Marianas, and then a mighty armada of 485 vessels set sail for the tiny island. On February 19 the first landings began of over seventy thousand marines under the command of General Holland "Howlin' Mad" Smith. The ensuing battle for Iwo Jima would take thirty-five days, and it would be one of the bloodiest of the war.

The island was defended by 21,000 troops under the command of General Tadamichi Kuribayashi, who had attended a U.S. Army cavalry school in Texas during the 1920s, and who now said on Iwo Jima that they would fight to the last man—which turned out to be almost literally true. Kuribayashi's plan was to put almost his entire garrison underground in an intricate network of bunkers, caves, and command posts. These underground citadels were connected by sixteen miles of tunnels, and they terminated on the surface in fortified concrete blockhouses and pillboxes which contained over eight hundred gun positions. The main concentration of this underground network was inside Mount Suribachi, the 556-foot hill on the south end of Iwo Jima.

The U.S. Marines opened up against these

fortifications with heavy artillery fire, but eventually it was a job that had to be done on foot. The marines ran across open areas, charging the bunkers and throwing grenades and bombs into firing slits and ventilators. Finally, up close, the marines used flamethrowers to incinerate the defenders inside. It was an extremely slow and costly advance. On D-plus-2, they stormed Mount Suribachi, carefully working their way up the hill and using drums of gasoline to pour into the fortifications. On the morning of D-plus-4, February 23, 1945, the marines reached Suribachi's crest and found that all the defenders had been killed. Later that day, Associated Press photographer Joe Rosenthal took his historic picture of six marines raising the U.S. flag on top of Mount Suribachi. The photo was flashed around the world; it became the theme of the 1945 War Bond campaign, and it is now a major item in the photographic lore of World War II.

However, with the capture of Mount Suribachi only about one-third of Iwo Jima was in American hands, and the marines had to fight

their way across the small island which was being ferociously defended by the Japanese. The days of murderous fighting stretched into weeks, until finally on March 26, thirty-five days after the initial invasion, the Japanese were silenced. But the losses were enormous on both sides. The Americans had 6,821 men killed, and the Japanese had over 19,000 killed, almost the entire garrison. General Kuribayashi himself died during the battle. And, sadly, of the six marines immortalized in the Rosenthal picture of the flag being raised on Mount Suribachi, three were later killed on Iwo Jima and a fourth was badly wounded.

Just six days later, the Americans launched the invasion of the other island which was to be the last stepping stone to the Japanese home islands—Okinawa. The island of Okinawa, just 350 miles from the main Japanese islands, was a large one nearly eighty miles long, and it could be used by the Allies not only as a bomber base but also as a garrison for troops to be used in the invasion of Japan. An armada of 1,300 ships sailed toward Okinawa, and on April 1,

Men of the 2nd Battalion U.S. Marines on Iwo Jima, February 19, 1945. Iwo Jima was a small island 660 miles southeast of Tokyo, and it was fiercely defended by the Japanese. The Japanese garrison was subdued after 35 days of battle, but 6,821 Americans lost their lives on Iwo Jima.



1945, the newly created U.S. 10th Army, which comprised two Army and two Marine divisions, landed on the lower west coast of the island. The 10th was under the command of General Simon Bolivar Buckner, the son and namesake of the Confederate general who had fought against Grant in the Civil War.

The invasion force landed on Okinawa with virtually no opposition, much to its amazement after the fierce landing battles at Iwo Jima. However, this was all part of the plan of General Mitsuru Ushijima who commanded a force of 120,000 Japanese troops on the island. His tactic was to allow the Americans to land and then write off the upper two-thirds of the island, while he took up his stand in the south which was uneven terrain honeycombed with tunnels and firing positions. There he hoped to bog down the Americans while the second part of his plan was enacted: an attack on the American ships in the harbor by Japanese vessels and kamikazes which would decimate the fleet and drive it off, leaving the landlocked American troops to be destroyed at leisure.

The Americans followed the script perfectly. On invasion day they landed 50,000 troops, a figure which was eventually increased to almost a quarter of a million. They first turned northward and cleared it with no trouble, but when they moved south they met Ushijima's first line of defense. The going for the Americans was pitifully slow, and in one instance the 7th Infantry Division took seven days to advance just 6,000 yards—and it suffered more than 1,120 casualties.

Meanwhile, the second part of the Japanese plan was going into action. A naval task force had sailed from Japan with the giant battleship *Yamato* escorted by a cruiser and eight destroyers, but as it approached Okinawa to attack the American armada it was detected by radar. U.S. aircraft attacked the task force with torpedo bombs, sinking the *Yamato*, as well as the

cruiser and four of the destroyers. This was to be the last sortie of the war for the Imperial Japanese Navy.

The Americans were not as fortunate with the kamikazes. On April 6, 300 suicide planes attacked the U.S. fleet, sinking three destroyers and two ammunition ships. The following day a battleship, a carrier, and two destroyers were hit by kamikaze strikes. The American response was to stretch out the fleet, so that the radar-picket destroyers would be some hundred miles away from the larger ships and could pick up the kamikazes as they came in. Nevertheless, a great number of the suicide planes got through, and between April 6 and June 10 they mounted ten mass attacks, damaging U.S. battleships, carriers, and destroyers including the *Enterprise*, *Hancock*, and *Bunker Hill*. By the end of the Okinawa kamikaze campaign over five thousand American sailors had died as a result of these attacks.

But the U.S. fleet remained and was joined by four British carriers, while the ground troops moved forward at an agonizingly slow pace. After they had broken through the first line of Japanese defense, Ushijima drew back to a new defense along what was called the Shuri Line. It was even more formidable than the first line of defense, but still Buckner pushed forward. On May 21, after a terrible ten-day struggle, Buckner broke through, and it looked for a moment as if the Japanese might be in rout. But Buckner's luck failed as the Okinawa monsoon season suddenly drowned the front and halted any offensive. Buckner could not start up again until June 5, and by that time the Japanese had withdrawn into yet another defensive line along the Kiyomi Peninsula. But there would be no more retreats because beyond the peninsula lay only the sea.

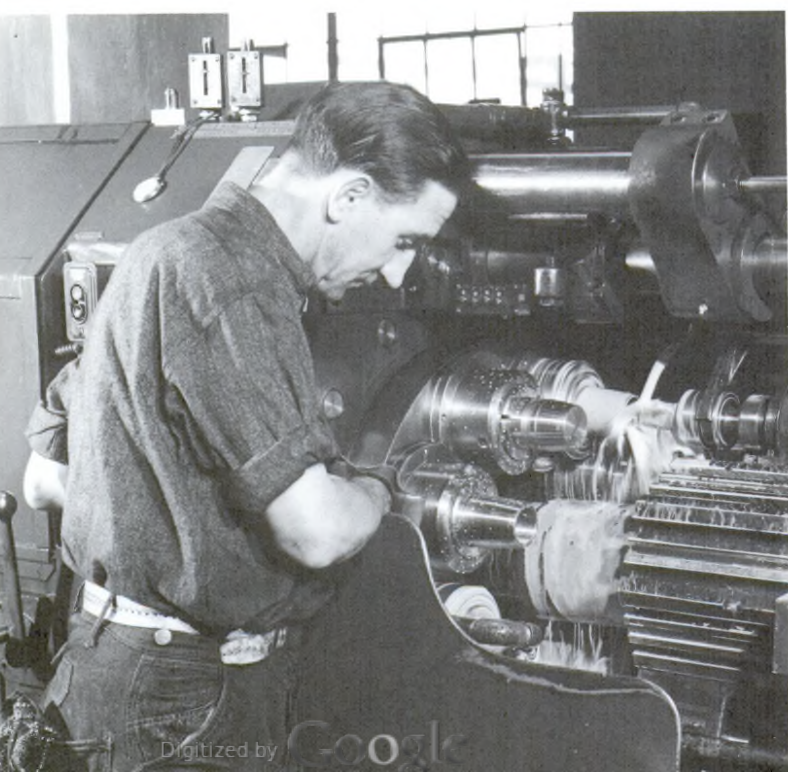
On June 12, Buckner began the final assault, and he cracked the eastern sector of the Japanese front. Then, on June 18 he cracked the

western sector, and the battle was his. But on that day as Buckner was standing in an observation post watching the advance a Japanese shell landed right next to him, killing him immediately.

The Japanese resistance on Okinawa was about at an end, and on June 21 General Ushijima and his Chief of Staff, General Isama, committed the ritual suicide of *hara-kiri*. June 22 marked the end of organized Japanese resistance on Okinawa, and the Americans claimed victory. However, as at Iwo Jima, the cost had been grievous in one of the bloodiest land battles in the Pacific War. The Americans had 7,613 ground troops killed and missing, while the Japanese had about 110,000 killed.

With the capture of the Philippines, Iwo Jima, and Okinawa the stage was now set for the long-awaited final step in the Pacific War:

An American worker on the home front turning shell parts on a turret lathe in a government arsenal. During World War II American industry had gone into full wartime production, and a large part of the Allied victory was due to the mighty amounts of weapons and materiel it produced.

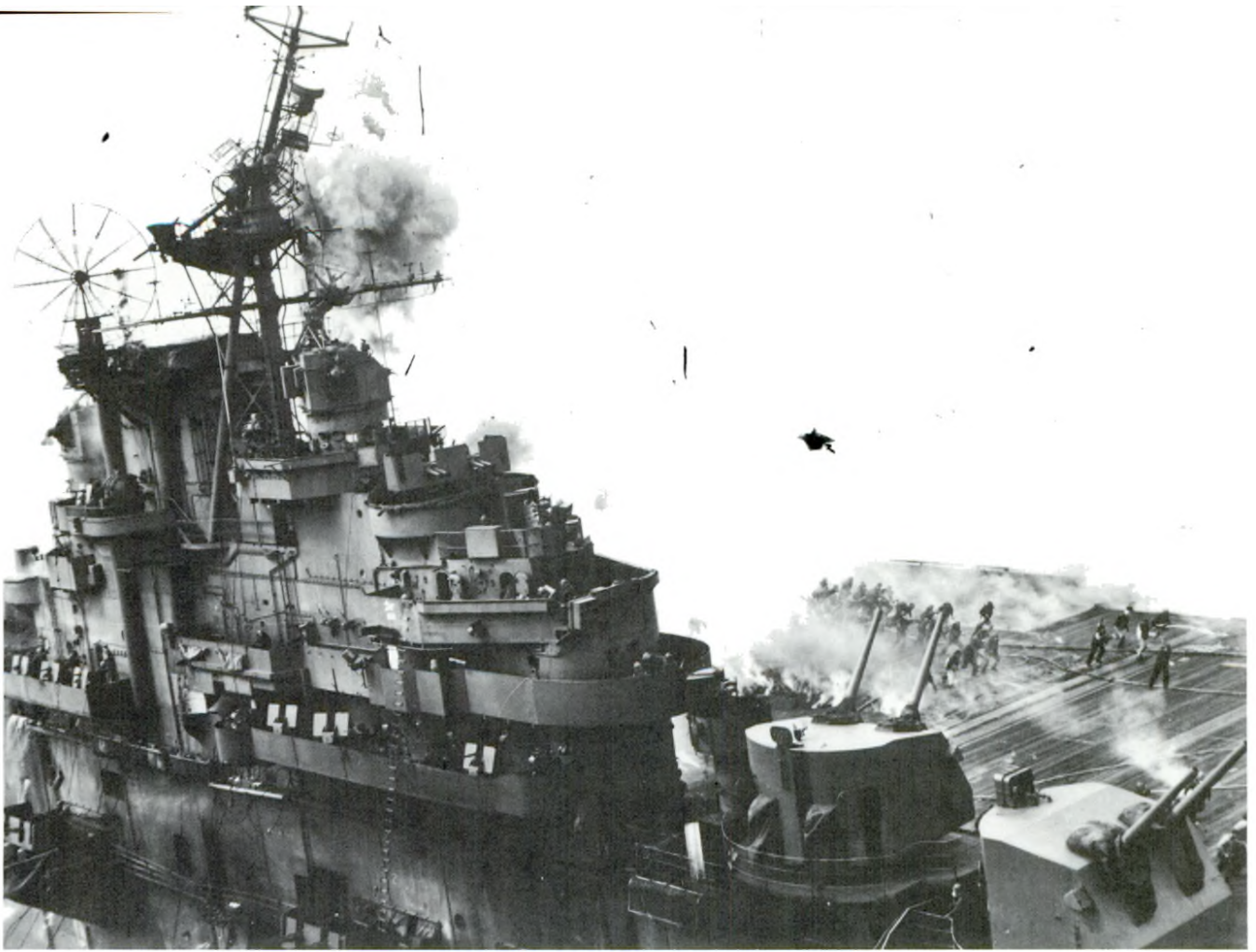


the invasion of Japan itself. The invasion plan was called Operation Olympic, and military strategists figured that the fighting on the Japanese homeland would be even more fierce than on Iwo Jima or Okinawa, particularly since they had already experienced the Japanese fighting code of Bushido, plus the new kamikaze threat. Operation Olympic would be carried out similarly to the invasion of the Philippines where the first landing was made on the smaller island of Leyte as a prelude to the landing on the large main island of Luzon. In this plan the initial invasion would be on the island of Kyushu which was the southernmost of the large Japanese home islands and only 350 miles from Okinawa. This landing would be made in November of that year. After Kyushu had been secured and troops moved up, the second landing would be made in March of 1946 with an assault on the Tokyo plain of eastern Honshu, the main Japanese island. The strategists conceded that the fighting on the Japanese home islands could well last into 1947 with a great cost of lives to both sides.

But the bombings—or more accurately, *the bomb*—made the invasion of Japan unnecessary.

BOMBS OVER JAPAN

Beginning in June of 1944, the U.S. 20th Air Force began flying B-29s from bases in China on bombing missions against the Japanese home islands. These were once-a-week raids, but they were stepped up considerably after the capture of the Marianas, where the Americans built large air bases. The first bombing mission from the Marianas was in November, and from that point on regular bombing runs were conducted against the Japanese mainland. These bombing missions of late 1944 were similar to the early American missions over German-occupied Eu-



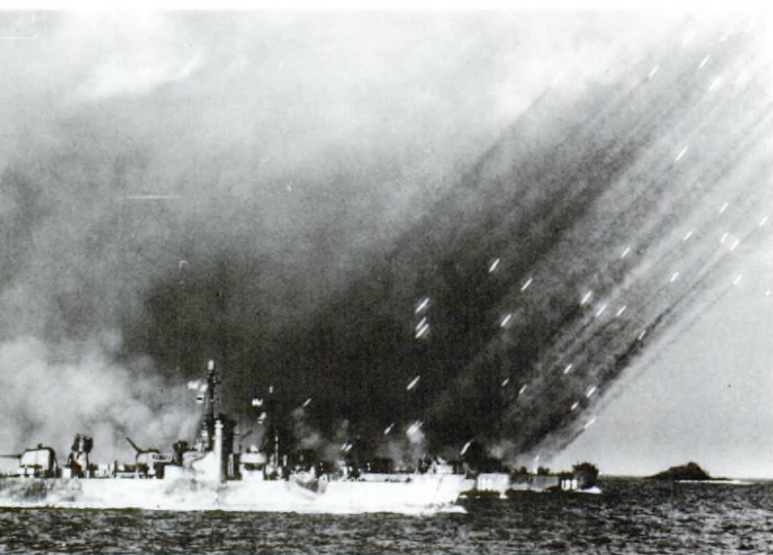
The heavy carrier USS Franklin shortly after it was hit by a Japanese kamikaze on March 19, 1945. The Franklin was part of the task force sailing toward Okinawa to invade that island when it was hit, and although it was badly damaged it managed to remain afloat. Kamikaze attackers were Japanese Zero airplanes loaded with bombs and piloted by suicide pilots who attempted to crash into Allied ships. The suicide kamikaze attack was something the Japanese did for the final ten months of the war, and it caused devastating losses to Allied vessels, destroying sixteen ships and damaging eighty others. The U.S. Navy had great difficulty dealing with both the tactical and philosophical nature of the kamikaze attack in the final stages of the Pacific war.

rope: they were high-level daytime raids which attempted precision bombing of precise targets.

However, when General Curtis LeMay arrived in the Marianas in February of 1945 to take command of the 21st Bomber Command the tactic was changed. LeMay wanted to adopt the incendiary bomb raids which the British had used so effectively against Germany. The purpose of an incendiary raid was not only to cause individual fires, but if possible to create a fire storm, a blazing, rolling fire which would sweep through the bombed area. The ability to create a fire storm depended largely on the nature of the target; there was, for instance, a massive fire storm in Dresden because of the wood

construction of its older buildings, but in Berlin, which suffered repeated bombings and enormous destruction, there were never any fire storms because of the stone and brick construction. LeMay thought that the Japanese cities with their flimsy wood and paper construction were prime targets for fire storms. He was right.

From that point on, the B-29s bombed from low level at night and their load consisted almost entirely of incendiaries, which were lighter to carry than explosive bombs and therefore permitted a larger payload on board. These repeated incendiary raids exacted a terrible toll on Japanese cities. For instance, on the night of March 9 Tokyo was attacked by 325 B-29s which



U.S. Navy vessels fire rockets at the shore immediately before the invasion of Okinawa on April 1, 1945. Okinawa was 350 miles from the main Japanese islands, and it was the last island to be invaded on the direct route to the invasion of Japan itself which was scheduled for November of that year. But the two atom bombs brought the war to a quick close, eliminating the necessity of an invasion of Japan. Thus the Allied military advance to the Japanese homeland ended at Okinawa.

were loaded exclusively with incendiaries, and in a matter of minutes a fire storm erupted which consumed sixteen square miles of the center of the city. In that one raid 89,000 people were killed, and another 180,000 were injured.

This kind of relentless bombing continued throughout the spring and early summer of 1945, with virtually no losses to American aircraft, because they owned the skies in the Pacific now, just as a few months earlier they had owned the skies over Germany. By mid-June, in addition to Tokyo, Japan's five other largest industrial centers had been devastated—Nagoya, Kobe, Osaka, Yokohama, and Kawasaki. In those raids 260,000 people were killed, over ten million were made homeless, and two million buildings were destroyed. The devastation was so widespread that by late July over half the total area of Japan's sixty-six largest cities—178 square miles—had been razed.

In July, while B-29s continued to incinerate Japan, the new American president, Harry Truman, visited Berlin to inspect the results of the earlier bombing of the German capital, and on July 17 in suburban Potsdam he met with Churchill and Stalin to discuss the Allied occupation zones in Germany. That two-week meeting at Potsdam would be filled with momentous events.

Russia was still maintaining neutrality with Japan, but for some time Stalin had been telling the Allies that he would declare war on Japan after the defeat of Germany: he said he needed ninety days after the German surrender to turn his troops around and march them toward Manchuria, and that timetable was fast expiring. Stalin also brought to Potsdam a peace offer from the Japanese which was in actuality only a call for an armistice and a cease-fire. As before with the Germans, the Allies rejected this offer and demanded an unconditional surrender. On July 26, the Potsdam Proclamation was broadcast to Japan, threatening "the utter destruction of the Japanese homeland" unless the government agreed to an unconditional surrender.

On that very day, however, the Potsdam Conference was in recess to allow Churchill to fly back to London for the first general elections in Britain since the German surrender. To Churchill's great anguish, his Conservative party suffered an overwhelming defeat at the polls by the Labor party, which promised sweeping socialistic reforms in the new Britain to be built after the war. Churchill was out, and the new Prime Minister was Clement Attlee who then journeyed to Germany for the Potsdam Conference. Thus, when Potsdam resumed Stalin was the only one of the big three remaining from the meeting at Yalta just five months earlier.

The most important event at Potsdam, however, was something which was not publicized. Shortly after arriving in Germany Truman was notified through secret channels of the fruition of a project which had been in the works in the

United States for some time. On July 15 at the Army Air Force Bombing Range near Los Alamos, New Mexico, the first experimental explosion of an atomic bomb had taken place, sending an enormous fireball skyward which mushroomed into the sky. The atomic bomb had been born, and Truman had a mighty weapon in his arsenal.

When Truman became president in April he had been vice-president for only a few months, and at that time he knew nothing at all about the atom bomb project. Roosevelt had kept this as one of his most closely guarded secrets from its inception in 1939 when he received a letter from Albert Einstein about the potential for splitting the atom and creating the gigantic force of an atomic bomb. The result of that letter was presidential approval for a project named the Manhattan Engineering District in order to obscure its real purpose. Over the years, the Manhattan Project spent two billion dollars and employed more than one hundred thousand people in different locales, very few of whom knew the total purpose of the project. It was only in 1945 that the project finally succeeded in separating uranium and plutonium and developing mechanisms to explode them as warheads.

At Potsdam, Truman dutifully notified Stalin that the United States had developed "a very powerful explosive" which would be used against the Japanese. Stalin stated his agreement, but asked no questions about it—because in actuality Soviet intelligence had penetrated the Manhattan Project in 1943 and Stalin was aware of the American experiments. Even though presidential advisors expressed doubts about the moral implications of the atom bomb, Truman never seemed to have any hesitancy about using it. He had already been told by his strategists that Operation Olympic could cost as many as a million American casualties, and he regarded the atomic bomb as "a military weapon."

On July 25, Truman approved a fateful military order—"The 20th Air Force will deliver its first special bomb as soon as weather will permit visual bombing after about August 3, 1945, on one of these targets: Hiroshima, Kokura, Niigata, or Nagasaki."

It was General LeMay in the Marianas who made the choice of a primary target, and he selected Hiroshima. He appointed Colonel Paul Tibbets to be the pilot of the B-29 which would carry the first atom bomb. Tibbets had named his plane the *Enola Gay* after his mother. The *Enola Gay* carried the uranium version of the atom bomb, and at 8:15 on the morning of August 6 it was released over the city of Hiroshima on the main island of Honshu. Some forty-three seconds later a gigantic flash appeared and a large mushroom cloud arose over the city. The bomb obliterated the area at ground zero and it destroyed buildings two miles away. Some 78,000 people died in the atomic explosion at Hiroshima.

The atom bomb signalled that the war was near its end, but it also showed clearly that a new epoch in the history of the world had begun.

THE JAPANESE SURRENDER

After the dropping of the bomb on Hiroshima, Truman announced publicly: "If they do not now accept our terms they may expect a rain of ruin from the air, the like of which has never been seen on this earth." But there was no reply from the Japanese government.

The seventy-eight-year-old Admiral Kantaro Suzuki had become Prime Minister in April but the deposed Tojo still retained veto power over cabinet decisions by virtue of his standing in the army, and he and other militarists were determined to fight on to the end. The fact of the large number of deaths (78,000) at Hiroshima did not in itself overwhelm the Japanese gov-

ernment—over a quarter million people had already been killed in the incendiary raids of the past few months, and in fact more people were killed in the March 9 raid on Tokyo than were killed at Hiroshima. (The added deaths which would be caused by radioactive fallout were not understood at the time.) Indeed, over three million Japanese had been killed in the years between Japan's invasion of China in 1937 and the dropping of the atom bomb in August of 1945.

The problem was that surrender was foreign to the Japanese psyche. The Japanese cabinet fully realized that the Empire had been defeated: the Navy had been driven from the seas, all of Japan's conquests had been retaken, and the homeland's major cities lay in ruins, as the enemy occupied nearby islands ready to inflict further devastation. The Japanese had already made an offer of a cease-fire, but that was unacceptable to the Allies who wanted an unconditional surrender. But surrender was contrary to the code of Bushido which required Japanese soldiers to fight to the death, and Japanese soldiers in the islands and jungles of the Pacific had been doing just that for three and a half years. In the face of Bushido, which had been so rigidly enforced during the war, how could the Japanese government surrender, particularly when Hitler himself had fought to the end just a few months previously?

On August 8—which was almost exactly ninety days after the German surrender—Russia declared war on the Japanese Empire, and the next day Soviet troops invaded Manchuria. The Russians had a force of 1.6 million troops, which were arranged in three far-eastern army groups formed from the best-equipped and the most experienced veterans of the German campaign, and they broke through the Central Manchurian plain, driving the Japanese back across the Yalu River into northern Korea.

True to his threat, President Truman ordered a second atomic bomb attack, and on August 9

an atomic bomb was dropped on the city of Nagasaki in the southern island of Kyushu. This bomb was a plutonium bomb, less lethal than the one dropped on Hiroshima. The death toll was 25,000, a third of the number of people killed at Hiroshima, but the devastation was the same with the utter destruction at ground zero and the flare-out to the surrounding areas. Two things should be noted about the Nagasaki bomb. One, it was dropped on Kyushu, a ship-building and torpedo factory center which was the invasion target for November of that year; and at the moment the bomb was dropped on Kyushu American troops of Operation Olympic were on the high seas en route to the invasion of that island. Therefore, in one sense, the Nagasaki bombing could be considered a preinvasion bombing designed to save American lives, similar to the preinvasion bombings of *Festung Europa* before the cross-Channel invasion of the previous year. Two, the second atom bomb depleted the U.S. atomic capabilities for the time being, but the Japanese did not realize this—a critical factor in the events of that August of 1945.

It can be claimed that the Nagasaki bomb and the prospect of similar bombs over the next few days gave the Japanese the rationale for accepting the terms of surrender. Bushido was an ancient code designed for a time when warrior fought warrior to the death, but this new weapon of modern technology wherein the atom was split and fire dropped from the sky was something far beyond those ancient codes, something to be handled on its own modern terms. At any rate, the Japanese cabinet convened on the evening of August 9 to consider a surrender, and now they were actively guided in that direction by Emperor Hirohito, who had been silently acquiescent to Tojo's war planning in 1941. By dawn of the next morning, each Cabinet member had signed the statement accepting the terms of the unconditional surrender of the Potsdam Proclamation, with the pro-

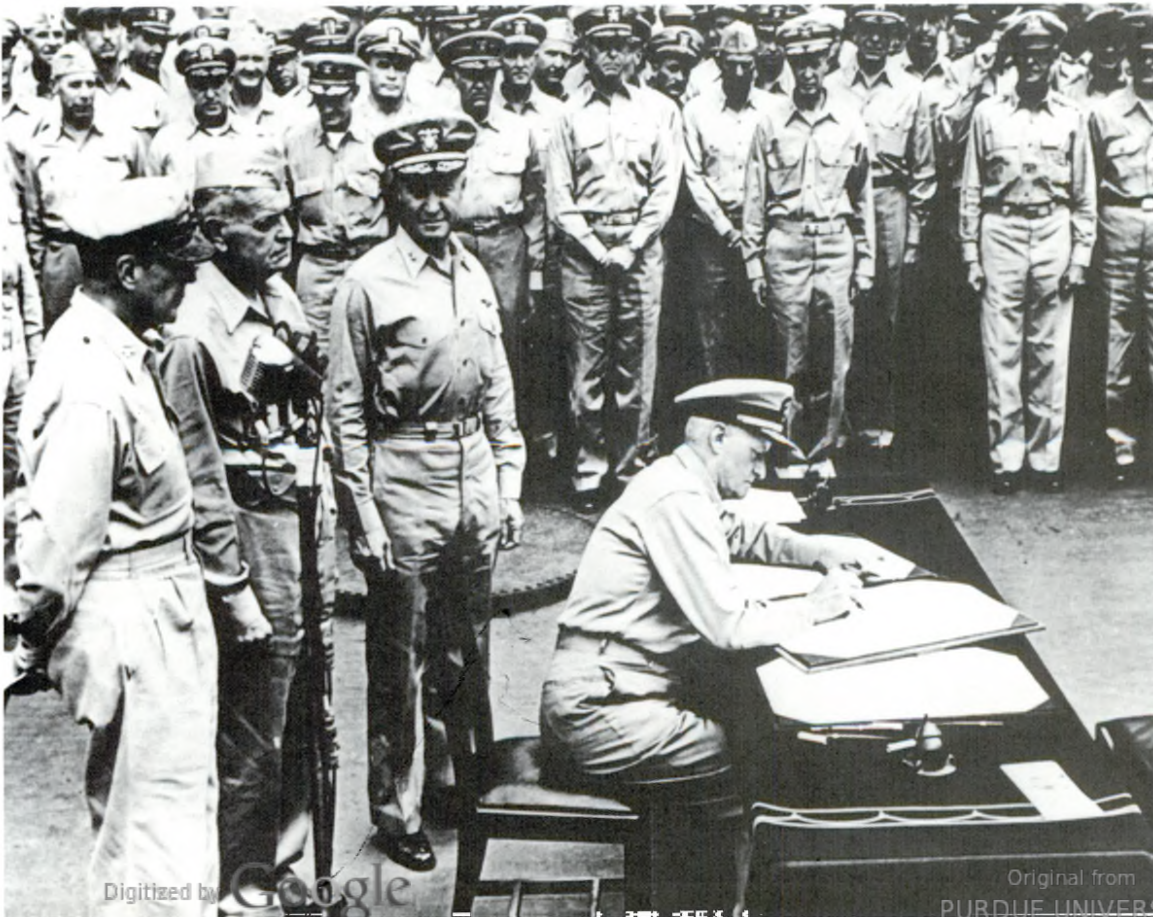
viso that the Emperor be maintained in place. This was agreeable to the Allies, who said that this was a matter for the Japanese people themselves to decide after the surrender.

On August 14, 1945, the Japanese government officially agreed to an unconditional surrender and an occupation of the Japanese homeland. The following day, Emperor Hirohito went on the radio to deliver the first public speech a Japanese sovereign had ever made and explained the surrender—although he never used the word *surrender*—and he offered one of the major understatements of all history when he said that the “war had turned out not necessarily to Japan’s advantage.”

Shortly after, General MacArthur sailed into Tokyo Bay on the *USS Missouri*, and on September 2 on the deck of that battleship he accepted the formal Japanese surrender. Foreign Minister Mamoru Shigemitsu signed for Japan, while MacArthur signed for the Allies and Admiral Nimitz for the United States. During that surrender, MacArthur made a statement which expressed the aspirations of the world that September day in 1945. “It is my earnest hope,” he said, “indeed the hope of all mankind, that from this solemn occasion a better world shall emerge out of the blood and carnage of the past.”

The guns of World War II were finally silent.

The Japanese surrender on September 2, 1945, on board the USS Missouri in Tokyo Bay. Signing for the U.S. is Admiral Chester Nimitz; standing behind him are, from left, General Douglas MacArthur, and Admirals William Halsey and Forrest Sherman.



■ LC RESOURCE NOTES

The **MANUSCRIPT DIVISION** contains the 20,000 items of the papers of Admiral William "Bull" Halsey, commander of the 3rd Fleet at the Battle for Leyte Gulf, and his narratives of that battle are particularly illuminating. After Leyte Gulf, as the papers indicate, Halsey took the 3rd Fleet out into the South China Sea where he patrolled the west coast of the Philippine archipelago, preventing any Japanese vessels from resupplying Japanese troops which were being defeated on the ground by American forces. The papers in this collection of Henry Stimson, Secretary of War, are also important in understanding this last phase of the war, since they chronicle the U.S. discussions involved in the decision to drop the atom bomb. The papers of J. Robert Oppenheimer and Glenn T. Seaborg document the tremendous technical effort that went into the development of the atomic bomb. The Curtis LeMay papers detail the devastating strategic bomber campaign against Japan.

The **SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY DIVISION** contains the Atomic Energy Commission Reports, beginning in 1943, and these documents show the development and birth of the atom bomb.

The **COMPUTER CATALOG CENTER** has bibliographic material about these last battles of the Pacific War under the subject heading World War, 1939–1945 and then the subheading Campaigns, which lists books under Philippines and Okinawa.

The **GEOGRAPHY AND MAP DIVISION** contains maps of the Philippines which help to understand the complex nature of the Battle for Leyte Gulf which was fought in the various straits and waterways of the archipelago. The division also has a 19-inch by 15-inch map of the whole west Pacific campaign published by the Serial Map Service in London in 1944 which gives an overall view of the multiple battle lines which were drawn up in the Pacific in the latter stages of the war.

The **ASIAN DIVISION** has 2,100 reels of micro-

film of the Japanese Foreign Office Archives which show the last desperate moves of the Japanese government as it tried to achieve some type of cease-fire while still saving face.

The **MOTION PICTURE, BROADCASTING, AND RECORDING SOUND DIVISION** in its film collection shows that in that last year of the war Hollywood was still producing patriotic films, such as the 1945 movie *They Were Expendable*, a dramatization of the factual 1942 book of the same title by William Lindsay White which describes the heroic efforts of the tiny PT-boats during the Pacific war. These Patrol Torpedo craft were small, highly maneuverable, and extremely vulnerable—in fact, John F. Kennedy was commanding a PT-boat off the Solomon Islands on August 2, 1943, when it was rammed and sunk by a Japanese destroyer. Another item in the collection is the 1952 NBC television documentary *Victory at Sea* which offers magnificent actual footage of the U.S. Navy during the Pacific War against the background of the stirring score by Richard Rodgers. The sound collection of this division has some of the most moving material on World War II in the Library in its U.S. Marine Corps Combat Records. This collection of some 2,500 recordings was begun by the Marine Corps in 1943 and continued through the occupation of Japan. The on-site recordings were done at such locations as Guam, Iwo Jima, and Okinawa, and they contain interviews with men returning from combat, as well as eyewitness descriptions of battle action. There are, for instance, interviews with soldiers before and after battle, an interview with a pilot during a bombing mission, and a broadcast by a correspondent while he was lying prone in a foxhole describing heavy fighting during an actual battle with the sounds of exploding shells in the background. The collection also has thousands of recordings of NBC news broadcasts throughout the war, including those which

exult in the final victories—May 8, 1945, was VE-Day (Victory in Europe), and September 2, 1945, was VJ-Day (Victory over Japan). Finally, the collection contains the commercial broadcasts Americans were listening to in 1945, such as the *Charlie McCarthy Program*, the *Bing Crosby Program*, and *Amos 'n' Andy*.

The newspaper collections of the SERIAL AND GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS DIVISION offer accounts of the final battles and victories of 1945, as well as an idea of how Americans were living at home during that year. For instance, the pages of the *New York Times* and *Washington Post* for March of 1945 contain classified ads which advertise jobs for mail clerks at 30 dollars a week, bank

clerks at 30 to 40 dollars a week, and legal stenographers at 45 to 50 dollars a week. A chain of clothing stores offered single- and double-breasted suits for 35 dollars. Tomatoes were 25 cents a pound, chuck steak was 27 cents a pound, and leg of lamb was 37 cents a pound.

The songs of the first half of 1945 which are contained in the MUSIC DIVISION express a hope and joy that the long war is finally about to end—which is in marked contrast to the more bellicose songs from earlier in the war—songs such as Irving Berlin's *Oh, To Be Home Again*, *When I Welcome Home My Fighting Man*, and *When the Boys Come Marching Home*.

EPILOGUE

The Summer of 1945

By the end of the summer of 1945 practically all of the major leaders and decision makers of the warring nations who had been in power in 1939 when the war began were either dead or deposed:

- Adolf Hitler committed suicide in a Berlin bunker in April of 1945, as did Joseph Goebbels.
- Benito Mussolini was killed in April 1945 by his fellow countrymen.
- Franklin Roosevelt died of natural causes that same month.
- Isoroku Yamamoto, the architect of Pearl Harbor, was shot down in the South Pacific in 1943.
- Winston Churchill was voted out of office in July of that summer, although he would return again as Prime Minister in 1951 at the age of seventy-six.
- Heinrich Himmler committed suicide shortly after he was captured by Allied soldiers at the end of the war.
- Hermann Göring was also captured, and he too committed suicide in his prison cell at Nuremberg while awaiting execution.
- Ten high level Nazis were executed at Nuremberg after the war crimes trials, including Hans Frank, the Nazi governor of German-occupied Poland. These bodies—along with that of Göring—were then taken to Dachau and cremated in the death ovens there, a macabre but perhaps fitting finale to the Nazi regime.
- After the Tokyo war trials, seven Japanese officials were executed, including Hideki Tojo, who had led Japan into the war in 1941.
- Ironically, of all these leaders only Joseph Stalin remained in power, and he would remain in power until his death in 1953.

More important than the fate of these individual leaders were the deaths of the fifty million people who died as a result of World War II. The most grievous losses were suffered by the Soviet Union which had some twenty million people killed. The British armed forces had 244,000 people killed, but another 60,000 British civilians were killed in the air raids. The United States had 292,131 military deaths—but, apart from the 68 civilians killed at Pearl Harbor, the U.S. suffered no direct civilian casualties. The Japanese, as noted, suffered over three million deaths during the war and the two years which preceded it when they invaded China. But the German military alone suffered 3.5 million fatalities in the crushing defeats in North Africa and the Western and Eastern fronts, as well as an additional 780,000 civilian deaths.

What was the net result of all this carnage? The facile answer is that the war rid the world of fascist totalitarianism, by eliminating Nazism, freeing captive peoples, and restoring

human liberties. And that is a correct answer, providing legitimacy for a just war. But nevertheless after the war one of the dictators remained in place, Joseph Stalin, whose advancing Red Army had given him control over Eastern Europe where he would erect what Winston Churchill called an Iron Curtain. This would breed a Cold War, a war of nerves which would last for almost another five decades. Then, too, Europe was in shambles after the war, and this would require a long period of rebuilding, aided immeasurably by the American Marshall Plan which provided economic aid to Europe. In the Far East, the benign and intelligent occupation government of MacArthur in Japan helped the Japanese rebuild, so that the United States and Japan became partners and friends in the postwar world. But in 1945 that was all in the future.

For then, in the summer of 1945, the overwhelming emotion around the world was relief and gratitude that the six-year ordeal was over.

RESOURCE GUIDE TO WORLD WAR II IN THE COLLECTIONS OF THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

The main collections of the nearly one hundred million items contained in the Library of Congress are housed in the Library's three adjacent buildings on Capitol Hill in Washington—the Thomas Jefferson Building, the John Adams Building, and the James Madison Memorial Building. The Library's collections are arranged in a number of divisions, each with its own staff, public reading room, on-shelf research material, and access tools to the material in that division, such as card catalogs and LOCIS, the Library's computerized information system. (The Library offers free instruction in the use of its computerized retrieval system.) The usual method of obtaining any item for study is by filling out a call slip and presenting it to one of the reference librarians. But there is much material which is immediately available without assistance—not only the on-shelf research material in the reading room of each division, but also such items as the microfilm of the *New York Times* in the SERIAL AND GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS DIVISION and a great number of photographic files in the Prints and Photographs Division. In addition, a number of the divisions have prepared Finding Aids, unpublished monographs which provide information and direction and guidance about material in a particular division. Finally, the most valuable research aid in the Library is the presence of the reference librarians in each division, competent and knowledgeable people who are ready to provide assistance.

Here are the divisions which contain significant amounts of material about World War II.

HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES DIVISION

This division (formerly called the General Reading Rooms Division) is located in the Thomas Jefferson Building and it comprises the Main Reading Room, the Main Card Catalog, the Computer Catalog Center, and the Microform Reading Room.

Through this division there is access to the twenty-six million books and pamphlets in sixty languages which are contained in the Library's collection.

In the reference collection in the Main Reading Room there are 324 titles for the study of World War II which provide primary entrance into the Library's collections. The Main Card Catalog offers book resources of the Library cataloged through 1980. The Computer Catalog Center—where there are some sixty computers available for public use—offers entry into LOCIS, the Library's computerized information system with its two subsystems MUMS and SCORPIO, and these systems provide subject headings, name headings, and title headings.

Also available in the Computer Catalog Center are multiple copies of the three-volume work *Library of Congress Subject Headings*. One extremely helpful subject heading for World War II is World War, 1939–1945, which contains over 52,000 bibliographic titles. That one large subject heading is divided into over four hundred subheadings. The subheading Campaigns, for instance, cites 240 World War II campaigns, such as Normandy or Okinawa, and under that are listed specific titles for that particular campaign. Other subheadings include Battlefields, Aerial Operations, Amphibious Operations, Artillery Operations, and Tank Warfare. There is a subheading for Regimental Histories which contains over 2,200 titles. Other subheadings concerning World War II cite items about the war concerning art, literature, music, motion pictures, and newspapers. Histories of the war may also be found in the subject headings for specific countries, such as France or Germany.

The Library has in its holdings the three official U.S. military service histories of World War II. During the war special historical teams accompanied combat forces, and after the war each service produced an official history of the war. The Army published the *United States Army in World War II* (150 volumes); the Navy published *History of U.S.*

Naval Operations in World War II (15 volumes); and the Marine Corps published *United States Marine Corps Operations in World War II* (4 volumes).

The Microform Reading Room has four and a half million items in its collection, and many of them concern World War II. For instance there are the wartime editions of *Stars and Stripes*, *Records of the Joint Chiefs of Staff (1942–1945)*, and *Confidential U.S. State Department Central Files for Germany: Foreign Affairs 1940–1941 and Internal Affairs 1930–1944*. Other microform series contain items on strategic issues, meetings, the European theater, the Pacific theater, and the Soviet Union.

MANUSCRIPT DIVISION

Located in the Madison Building, this division contains forty million items which are arranged in 11,000 collections. To gain access to the items in these collections, there are available in the reading room of this division an alphabetized master record of the manuscript collections, plus a current listing by title of all collections, as well as other Finding Aids produced by the division.

An overall view of American military involvement in World War II is contained here in the 115,000 items in the papers of Henry Stimson, Secretary of War from 1940 to 1945, who kept careful diaries and records of all events from Pearl Harbor to the dropping of the atom bombs. The papers of Frank Knox, Secretary of the Navy, are also in this division. The papers of the William ("Billy") Mitchell Collection chronicle the growth of American aviation before the war, while those of General Carl Spaatz describe aviation during the war. The extraordinary exploits of the Flying Tigers are outlined in great detail in the papers of General Claire Chennault. The 25,500 documents in the papers of General George Patton describe his heroic adventures, particularly in the

Battle of the Bulge. This division also houses the Naval Historical Foundation Collection, the largest single collection of personal papers relating to the U.S. Navy. The 20,000 items in the papers of Admiral William Halsey, who participated in so many key engagements in the Pacific, are an important part of this collection. So too are the important naval papers of such figures as William Leahy, Ernest King, and John Ballentine. In addition, this division contains captured German and Italian documents.

RARE BOOK AND SPECIAL COLLECTIONS DIVISION

This division is located in the Jefferson Building, and it contains 600,000 items of rare and historically significant publications. The best access to the collection is through the card catalog in the division's reading room where material is cataloged by name and subject headings, but there is also computer access.

The division contains the Third Reich Collection, a gathering of captured books, albums, and printed materials about the twelve-year Reich. Included in this collection are 1,019 books of the Hitler library, as well as a set of *Die Alte Garde Spricht*, a series of biographies of high Nazi party members. The division also contains a number of different early editions of *Mein Kampf*, including one in Braille. Contained in this division are the 1,322 titles of the Armed Services Editions, the only complete public set of ASE in existence. The ASE was a government-industry program during the war which produced books, both current and classic, for U.S. servicemen overseas. During the war, some 123 million copies of ASE books were produced, and they are arranged in this collection in order of publication. Interesting items about and by major wartime figures can be found by accessing the catalog under such name headings as

Churchill, Roosevelt, and Eisenhower. One item, for instance, contains logs of Roosevelt's wartime trips, such as the one to Yalta.

SERIAL AND GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS DIVISION

This division, located in the Madison Building, contains the largest collection of newspapers, unbound publications, and serially issued government publications in the United States. In the newspaper collection, there are 1,600 titles of U.S. and foreign newspapers, both current issues and back files; and there are, in the division's reading room, a chronological index of U.S. newspapers and a card file. Serial and Government Publications has recent unbound issues of periodicals, and back files are available in other parts of the Library in microfilm and hard-bound paper copy. The reading room has a 2,500-volume reference collection, and microfilm of the *New York Times*, the *London Times*, and the *Washington Post* is indexed and available for immediate research in the reading room. Microfilm reading machines are available to the public, as well as machines to make paper copies from microfilm, microfiche, and paper originals.

There is a rich lode of information and interpretation about World War II to be found in the newspaper files of the division. The story can be followed chronologically in one newspaper, or a comparison can be made among various papers, or specific events can be researched. The *New York Times* gives an overview of how the war was being reported in the American press, but the division also has files on all major American and foreign newspapers of the period. The *London Times* shows how the war was being reported in Britain. Most interesting for researchers are the files of the *Völkischer Beobachter Berlin*, the Nazi newspaper published in Berlin, which shows how the war

was being reported to the German people. Asian-language newspapers are contained in the Asian Division.

ASIAN DIVISION

Located in the Adams Building, this division contains one of the most comprehensive collections of Asian-language materials in the world, including books, periodicals, newspapers, manuscripts, and microfilm. Access to this material is through both card catalog and computer. The division is divided into four sections: Chinese, Korean, Southern Asian, and Japanese. The most valuable unit for studying World War II is the Japanese Section, which has a number of special catalogs, including the JAPANESE NATIONAL UNION CARD CATALOG.

A major part of the division's research about Japan during the war derives from the materials seized by the occupying forces from 1945 to 1952. Chief among these items are 163 reels of microfilm about the activities of the Imperial Army and Navy, and 2,100 reels of microfilm which contain the Foreign Office Archives. Another interesting item is the South Manchurian Railway Collection, of one of Japan's largest research organs at the time which shows Japanese operations leading up to the war. The materials also include newspapers, periodicals, and even banned publications which were produced in Japan during the war. Among the captured Japanese items is a collection of 1,400 motion pictures which is housed in the Motion Picture, Broadcasting, and Recorded Sound Division.

EUROPEAN DIVISION

This division, located in the Jefferson Building, provides reference service and bibliographic information about the former Soviet Union and all regions of Europe, except for Great Britain, Ireland,

and the Iberian peninsula. Readers are served by the European Reference Desk, which has access to a 10,000-volume reference collection, as well as current periodicals and journals in the Slavic and Baltic languages. The books in this collection are in both the vernacular languages and English. The 10,000-volume reference collection is accessible on-line at various locations throughout the Library.

For researchers into World War II, the division's reference collection provides the opportunity to browse for pertinent books. The books are arranged by country—France, Germany, Italy, etc.—and World War II titles are relatively easy to locate. Some of these titles have been indicated in the Resource Notes in the text. The Russian section, containing books in both English and Russian, is particularly interesting, including such works as the *Soviet Military Encyclopedia*.

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY DIVISION

This division, located in the Adams Building, maintains extensive collections in all fields of science and technology, except technical agriculture and medicine. One part of the collection consists of the 10,000 on-shelf books in the division's reading room. Other technical material can be identified through the Library's computer system. Another part of this division is the Technical Report Collection with over three million technical reports which constitute one of the largest collections of scientific and technical reports in the United States.

Technical materials about World War II can be found under appropriate call numbers (representative of subject terms like aircraft, ships, tanks, etc.) in the Science Reading Room. However, this reference collection represents only a very small portion of the total number of books in the General Collections.

The Technical Reports Collection also contains

a wealth of scientific/technical materials relating to World War II. Some of the most important and often little known individual collections are:

1. The OSRD Collection of approximately thirty thousand documents. The Office of Scientific Research and Development and its parent organization, the National Defense Research Council (NDRC) were responsible for conducting research to aid the U.S. war effort. Broken down into twenty-four divisions, the OSRD sponsored and conducted research on subjects ranging from explosives to rockets, war chemistry (gases), psychological training for pilots, penicillin, paints for ships, radio communication, especially in difficult environments (tropics), footwear, and climatic stress. About ten thousand of these reports were later reissued by the OTS (Office of Technical Services, now NTIS—National Technical Information Service) and ASTIA (Armed Services Technical Information Agency, now DTIC—Defense Technical Information Center).

2. Synthetic Rubber Project of approximately eight thousand documents. These reports document a unique collaborative effort by U.S. government agencies and laboratories, university departments, and rubber and tire companies to develop, produce, and test tires made of synthetic materials rather than natural rubber.

3. FIAT-BIOS-CIOS Reports. These documents, issued by U.S., British, and combined industrial research teams, report on the state of research for the war effort in Nazi Germany. The teams collected patents and patent applications, research reports, and drawings, and conducted interviews with administrative and scientific/engineering personnel from the various factories and research institutions. It was estimated that the value of the information collected amounted to sixteen billion dollars. Most of the reports were issued by the Office of Technical Services (OTS—now NTIS) of the Department of Commerce and are in English. The supporting documents, however, are in German. The actual documents are housed in the Photoduplication Ser-

vice, but the indexes are located in the Science Reading Room.

4. AEC (Atomic Energy Commission) Reports in hard copy, microcard, and microfilm-fiche formats. These reports document research done by U.S. scientists in support of the development of the atomic bomb, but also on the peaceful use of atomic energy. Reports related immediately to the bomb are still classified and are not publicly available.

5. Captured German/Japanese air technical documents. Filmed by the U.S. Air Force, these German Air Force Ministry documents, on 100-foot film reels, are of varying scientific value and range from old glider manuals to the design and testing reports of the latest German and Japanese fighter planes, especially the experimental models. The film strips are of poor quality; many are losing their images, and the large rolls are falling apart at the seams, i.e., where individual strips of varying lengths were glued together. The filming obviously was done in a hurry by inexperienced staff and many documents cannot be read. Because of the poor condition it is in, this collection cannot be made available.

GEOGRAPHY AND MAP DIVISION

Located in the Madison Building, this division maintains the largest and most comprehensive cartographic collection in the world with some four million maps and sixty thousand atlases. The cartographic material in this collection includes maps which indicate national boundaries, as well as topographic, geologic, soil, mineral, and resource maps, and nautical and aeronautical charts. Some access to the collection is through the card catalog and the computer, but here—as in other divisions—the best initial access is through consultation with one of the research librarians.

In researching the story of World War II through cartography, an initial approach can be made by studying the maps of various countries from 1939

to 1945. The maps are referenced in this collection by country and by date; thus a 1939 map of France would show that country in its original state, while a 1941 map would show it divided into the German-occupied north and the Vichy regime in the south. The progress of the war can also be followed by the newspaper maps of the war years in this collection. U.S. military maps show the battles America waged in Africa, Europe, and the Pacific. Particularly interesting are the captured maps, including the daily situation maps of the German Wehrmacht as it advanced into Russia in 1941. The collection also contains comprehensive military maps which show the overall ebb and flow of the battle lines during the war, two of which are cited in the Resource Notes in the text.

A recent accession is the cartographic archives of Richard Edes Harrison, one of the leading twentieth-century American journalistic cartographers. He stimulated public interest in maps during the war years through his innovative perspective and landform depictions of strategically important areas. While many of these maps were originally prepared for *Time*, *Life*, and *Fortune*, some also appeared in his World War II atlas, *Look at the World: The Fortune Atlas for World Strategy* (New York, 1944).

PRINTS AND PHOTOGRAPHS DIVISION

This division is located in the Madison Building, and it contains over ten million photographs, as well as posters, fine prints, and political cartoons. Many of the photographs in this collection are arranged in self-indexing files in the division's reading room and are therefore available for immediate inspection, but the greater portion of the collection must be accessed through card catalogs and indexes in the reading room.

For researchers into World War II, the division has prepared an invaluable Finding Aid, a four-volume unpublished monograph titled "World

War II" which contains an extensive listing of catalog cards about wartime photographs in the collection—volume 1 is "Africa, Middle East, Asia"; 2 is "Europe"; 3 is "United States"; and 4 is "Germany." In addition, the division contains the photographic part of the Third Reich Collection, over seventy photo albums which show pictures of life in Germany and Nazi activities. The Hermann Göring Collection consists of forty-seven personal photo albums which show his early career and his activities from 1932 to 1942. The division has the photographic part of the William ("Billy") Mitchell Collection, 4,800 photographs which chronicle the beginnings of military aviation. Part of the Office of War Information Collection is in this division, thousands of mounted and captioned photographs, mostly of life on the home front. Furthermore, the indexed photographic files in the reading room contain folders of pictures of such major wartime figures as Stalin, Churchill, and Roosevelt.

MOTION PICTURE, BROADCASTING, AND RECORDED SOUND DIVISION

This division, located in the Madison Building, is arranged in two separate collections, each with its own reading room, staff, reference material, and access tools: the motion picture and television collection and the broadcasting and recorded sound collection. While both of these reading rooms and their research materials are open to the public, the viewing and listening facilities of the division are limited to people doing research for "a publicly available work," such as a dissertation, publication, or commercial production. The motion picture collection contains the largest and most diverse collection of moving images in North America, some one hundred thousand motion pictures and television programs; and the recorded sound collection contains the nation's largest public collection of sound recordings and radio broadcasts, some two million items. Both of these

reading rooms have card catalogs, computer access, and other finding aids to identify and locate material in the collections.

On-shelf reference books in the motion picture collection provide an overview of American commercial movies produced during the war, such as *The Films of World War II* (New Jersey, 1973), *Films of the Second World War* (New York, 1974), and the Library of Congress publication *Catalog of Copyright Entries Motion Pictures 1940–1949*. (Some of these movies which are contained in the collection are cited in the Resource Notes in the text.) The division has produced a Finding Aid which describes its holdings of films produced in Russia. (Some of these have also been cited in the Resource Notes.) The division has extensive holdings in other foreign films of the period: some 4,000 German feature films, documentaries, and newsreels from 1933 to 1945; 1,400 similar films produced in Japan during the 1930s and early 1940s; and 500 films produced in Italy from 1930 to 1945. Among the German films is the weekly newsreel *Die Deutsche Wochenschau* from 1939 to 1945. Among the Italian films is the newsreel *Istituto Luce* from 1938 to 1943. Among the Japanese films are the newsreels *Asahi News* from 1935 to 1939, *Yomiuri News* from 1936 to 1940, and *Nippon News* from 1940 to 1945. (All of these foreign films are indexed in the German, Italian, and Japanese collection catalogs.) In addition, the collection contains American newsreels of the period, principally *Universal Newsreel* and *News of the Day*, but also *Paramount News* and *Movietone News*.

The broadcasting and recorded sound collection contains voice recordings of all the principal figures of the war, such as Churchill, Roosevelt, and all the major German leaders, including multiple recordings of Adolf Hitler. There are also recordings of lesser but interesting figures, such as Murrow from London, Shirer from Berlin, and Lord Haw-haw and Axis Sally. There are a number of gripping on-site recordings, such as the French

surrender at Compiègne in 1940 and a report from the Normandy beachhead in 1944. The U.S. Marine Corps Combat Records is a collection of some 2,500 on-site recordings from 1943 to 1945 which were done on Guam, Saipan, Okinawa, Iwo Jima, and other Pacific locations; they include interviews of men returning from combat and eyewitness descriptions of battle action. The Armed Forces Radio and Television Series Collection contains discs of radio programs broadcast to U.S. military personnel during the war, including commercial broadcasts and original AFRTS programs. The OWI Collection contains some one hundred thousand acetate discs of broadcasts by the Office of War Information aimed around the world from 1942 to 1945, including material in all languages of Western Europe and some of the Far East. The National Broadcasting Company Radio Collection contains discs of thousands of NBC radio programs broadcast at home during the war years. Some of these have been cited in the Resource Notes. The division also has a full collection of V-discs, which are vinyl records of popular and classical music produced by the War Department during World War II solely for distribution to Army and Navy personnel overseas.

AMERICAN FOLKLIFE CENTER

The American Folklife Center, located in the Jefferson Building, was created by Congress in 1976 and is engaged in a wide variety of programs to document, preserve, and present folklife in America. The holdings of the Center are contained in the Archive of Folk Culture, a collection established in the library in 1928 that comprises recordings, books, manuscripts, photographs, correspondence, and field notes about the daily life of people in the United States and around the world. Basic access to this collection of over one million items can be obtained by consulting various catalogs in the Folklife Reading Room. The

Center has also published a number of Finding Aids for this interesting and multifaceted collection. There is also computer access to a portion of the collection.

The Archive has an abundance of material about American life during World War II. Consult such subject headings as World War II, Soldier, Sailor, and Army. Finding Aids into the 45,000 hours of audio recordings locate men in the street interviews during the early stages of the war, instantaneous recordings of songs performed by groups of servicemen, and field recordings of the music of the indigenous cultures of the Pacific theater gathered by the Fahnstock expeditions and the Marine Corps. A manuscript entitled "Military Folklore: World War II" as well as the computerized catalog indicate books in the collection, such as *GI Songs* (New York, 1944) and *The Wild Blue Yonder: Songs of the Air Force* (California, 1981). (The Folklife Reading Room has a reference collection of some four thousand books, directories, and periodicals dealing with folk music and folklore.) There is World War II material in the more than 900,000 pages of manuscripts in the Archive; and the 400,000 photos in the Archive are indexed. There is also a collection of Office of War Information research material done during the war about wartime rumors and anecdotes. As elsewhere throughout the Library, the reference librarians can provide invaluable assistance for access into this diverse collection.

MUSIC DIVISION

This division is located in the Madison Building, and its holdings contain one of the largest and most comprehensive music libraries in the world—some eight million items, including seven million pieces of music, 400,000 books, as well as music manuscripts, microfilms, programs, periodicals, photographs, and personal papers of leading musicians.

The division has an extensive collection of World War II music and music literature (see World War, 1939–1945 in ML catalog), including patriotic, martial, and popular music which reflects the mood of the era. Some of the holdings relevant to this period are Nazi music (M1734. National Socialist Party), American patriotic music of the period (see M1647–M1648), and the papers of the Joint Army-Navy Commission on Welfare and Recreation. There are collections of papers of some of the major musical figures of the war, such as Irving Berlin, Elizabeth Sprague Coolidge, Aaron Copland, Arnold Schoenberg, Leonard Bernstein, Oscar Hammerstein II, and Serge Koussevitzky. The musical theater of the time is also included in the collection, such productions as *This Is the Army*, *On the Town*, and *Hi, Yank*. In addition, there is material about Russian, French, German, Dutch, and English music of World War II.

Access to this World War II material is through a number of avenues: the division's class catalog system, which is outlined in *Library of Congress Classification: Music and Books on Music*, available in the reading room; the large card catalog and computer access in the reading room; and the on-shelf volumes in the reading room, such as *An Annotated Index of American Popular Songs*, Vol. 2, 1940–1949 (New York, 1965). However, the most valuable research aids in this division are the reference librarians who are able to assist the researcher in finding music and music material about World War II.

The following books in the division's collections should also prove useful:

Joža Karas, *Music in Terezín 1941–1945* (New York, 1985).

Michael Meyer, *The Politics of Music in the Third Reich* (1991).

Harvey Sachs, *Music in Fascist Italy* (London, 1987).

Joseph Wulf, *Musik im Dritten Reich: Eine Dokumentation* (Frankfurt, 1983).

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